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Introduction to Volume 51

With this issue we begin our second half-century of continuous publication—first as the *NVGA Bulletin,* then as the *Vocational Guidance Magazine,* next as *Occupations,* and since 1952 as the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL. We have reached a dangerous age, when rigidity and memories of "the good old days" too often substitute for fresh ideas. However, it is also an age when wisdom and an increased sense of perspective are sometimes in evidence.
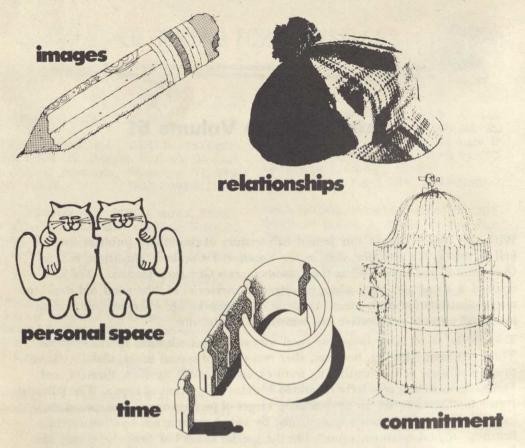
The special issues have been one good way to bring fresh ideas to our readers. There has been a feeling, however, after two years of special issues, that they have preempted some of the continuing features, such as Book Reviews, Etcetera, and Feedback, as well as regularly submitted articles on a variety of topics. The Editorial Board has therefore set an approximate target of perhaps one or two special theme issues in each volume, but supplemented by anywhere from one to three special features—topical treatments much like the special issues but comprising only one-fourth to one-half of that month's issue.

The Board has also reviewed our recent experiences related to research and has formulated a policy that is discussed in this issue's Editorial.

Each year at this time it is our pleasure to welcome new members of the Editorial Board. Joining us at this time are: William Banks of the University of California at Berkeley, who has been active in the area of black studies; James Barclay of the University of Kentucky, whose interests include philosophical foundations of guidance as well as assessment of children; Doris Jefferies of Indiana University at Bloomington, who until recently was active in elementary school guidance in the inner city of Detroit; Eldon Ruff, a former president of ASCA and school guidance director who is now innovating in the area of career education at Indiana University at South Bend; and David Zimpfer, a counselor educator at the University of Rochester, whose expertise in group work and research is especially valued.

We close on a sad note. Joseph T. Impellitteri, one of the co-editors of last December's special issue on ethics, died in an automobile accident in May. At the age of 44 he had already done noteworthy work in experimenting with computer technology in the vocational counseling process and helping to bridge the gap between guidance and vocational education. He shall be missed.

LEO GOLDMAN

images

relationships

personal space

time

commitment

competition

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Feedback

*Letters selected for
Feedback may be edited or
abridged for publication.*

May Special Issue

It is not my nature to write letters to magazines, but I could not resist this time. The May 1972 issue is one of the most refreshing pieces to come across my desk in many a moon.

I have been in this bit of education for some 32 years. During this time I have been in business education, and for the last 15 years I have been guidance director of this school system. We have two senior high counselors, three junior high, and one elementary. Next year we will be adding an additional one at the lower level. In fact, this is where our thrust is to be for the next several years.

In addition, I have served my state as president of the NSEA and also served five years as an NEA director.

In reference to the magazine, I fully realize that statistical data is important but also know that the practicing counselor wants to be able to read something that will be of help to him in determining how he can change things. This help you have given in the May issue. Keep up the good work.

CHESTER O. MARSHALL
Kearney (Nebraska) Public Schools

Must One Live with the Action?

I found while reading the May special issue that my hackles and annoyance were rising. Here we were presented with a series of articles, nearly all of which expressed the feeling, either implicitly or directly, that no one can counsel without having experienced the situation faced by the counselee (with the exception of the excellent article by Mary Buckley).

With the enthusiasm of youth still wishing to attack every problem on the level of the Peace Corps, we were subjected to the concept that we must "go where the action is" before we can be fit, yes, be allowed to counsel. The inference was also clear that the action is generally located in the inner city; few other places count.

Maybe there is a time in one's training and also in one's career when it would be good and useful to live in an inner city (assuming one does feel that this is the main place counselors are needed). But I cannot believe either that it is necessary to live with the action to be able to understand the client or that it is necessarily good for the counselor to sell his whole life to living there. This is tantamount to being told that the marriage counselor can only understand the troubled marriage after a crisis in his own or that the prison counselor can only understand the fear of the inmate after having been the subject of a homosexual rape himself.

It is true that such experiences might enhance his understanding, but I maintain that the aware and able counselor can surmount his lack without having to experience the particular situation. In fact, I would go so far as to say that having had the experience might cause the counselor to become too emotionally involved in the case, to the detriment of the counselee.

JACK DOWN
State Prison of Southern Michigan
Jackson, Michigan

P.S. I just received my June issue and see that Dugald Arbuckle stole most of my thun-

der, but this letter is written, so I'll send it anyway!

Practice What Ye Preach

As a placement consultant for three years at the University of Illinois and, more recently, as a job candidate, it has been my experience to contact many counselors and counselor educators who have the responsibilities of hiring new personnel. In a large number of cases, these counselors (including some nationally known in the field) have not even acknowledged receipt of the application, let alone informed the applicant of his status.

For those of this "helping profession" who can't or don't care about job applicants, I have listed some terms of which they should be reminded—particularly by reading the initials:

Honesty
Yearning
Principles
Openness
Concern (for people)
Relationships
Individuality
Thoughtfulness
Empathy

J. BRAD HASTINGS
Parkland College
Champaign, Illinois

Fiftieth Anniversary Issue

The Fiftieth Anniversary Special Issue was truly outstanding in every respect. This was a fine tribute to a most valuable organization.
A proud member.

TERRY D. STIMSON
Adak On-Base Schools
Adak, Alaska

Encouraging Lay Counselors

I found Josiah S. Dilley's thoughts on "Antishrinkthink" (March 1972) to be a particularly concise and well-written comment on an important and growing trend in the field of counseling. The successes of rap centers, crisis hot lines, and other lay counselor opera-
tions are a strong indication that a large resource exists in the general community for aiding troubled people.

Professionals can make a large investment in these operations by performing important training and consultative functions with lay counselors. The nonprofessional worker can deal on a one-to-one or small group basis with those seeking help, while the professional worker performs a supervisory role.

Perhaps with such an approach we will eventually see the day when community mental health truly becomes everyone's cooperative responsibility.

BARRY M. WOLF
Doctoral Student
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor

A New Power Base

The recent article by Baker and Cramer (April 1972), although provocative, misses the point.

The point is not so much the limitations of the counselor in his own particular work environment or institution, but rather the power relationships of the different constituencies within the U.S. as a whole. If the Pentagon succeeds in getting 20 to 30 billion dollars for some B-1 bombers while a five-billion-dollar allocation for hospitals (over a five-year period) is vetoed by the president, this says something about power relationships as well as societal values.

The notorious weakness of the public sector (health, education, etc.) as opposed to the private sector was pointed out by Galbraith in *The Affluent Society*. Since then the public sector has made some gains but has not redressed the balance.

As long as counselors continue to focus merely on their own small profession, they will indeed be impotent. As soon as they realize that being a social change agent involves uniting with educators, (mental) health professionals, social workers, etc., to create a new power base, then they might become real social change agents.

JOHN BICKFORD
Queens College
Flushing, New York

Racism and Counseling

This is a reaction to Arbuckle's article "The Counselor: Who? What? (June 1972). I am confused by the meaning of his rhetorical question, "If the white counselor who has certain racist attitudes is doomed to maintain them for life, how can the black counselor hope to help the black client who has deep feelings of inferiority and worthlessness?"

Do the attitudes of white racist counselors depend on black counselors? Is it psychological counseling that permits one to assume that black counselors feel that their black clients have deep feelings of inferiority and worthlessness? I suspect Arbuckle meant that it is normal for white racist counselors to feel this way. Yet he thinks they are worthy and qualified to deal with black youth. Psychological racism!

Just how the author intends to change the attitudes of white racist counselors by proclaiming that psychological counseling is the "in thing" puzzles me. The possibility of white racist counselors' changing is recognized, but the reality of change is unrealistic because the society continues to reward and reinforce a racist destiny. The accident of birth is used to define freedom, justice, and dignity by sentiment and practice. This is a fact, not pessimism. So most white counselors are doomed to their racist attitudes for life.

Arbuckle may be right, but if the best that counselors can do in a society troubled with racism is to determine that their professional identity is psychological counseling, we remain in deep, deep trouble, and the Archie Bunkers will continue to flourish as the auctioneers of humanness.

PAUL M. SMITH, JR.
University of Cincinnati

Counseling Women

Special Issue Coming in October

Accept the fact that this is a man's world, and learn how to play the game gracefully. This is the advice given in a recent Newberry Award winning children's book.

The October issue of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL represents the voices of women who will no longer "accept the fact that this is a man's world." The problems are stated, solutions are proposed, and steps for implementation are given. Topics include:
- New counseling concepts for the new woman
- Expansion of career development ideas
- Sex-role stereotyping in the schools
- Discrimination against working women
- The status of women as counselors
- Consciousness-raising groups

. . . plus an article by Shirley Chisholm that speaks to "Sexism and Racism" as one pattern of discrimination.

Guest editor Judy Lewis has brought together the current thought for women who "will no longer accept arbitrary limitations on their choices." Counselors and counselor educators, males and females—take note! The issue of women in a man's world is no longer a game gracefully played. Read the October issue and see how you rate as a counselor of women.

Editorial

WHAT RESEARCH FOR PRACTITIONERS?

"There should be more research in the P&G JOURNAL." That is the message I have heard from a number of people, especially during the course of last March's APGA Convention in Chicago. "You have gone too far in the opposite direction; it is time to restore the balance."

The Editorial Board tended to agree; in fact, research was one of the two major topics at the Board's meeting during the convention (the other was the matter of special issues). I also agree, but how to do it remains a vexing problem that I'd like to share with you.

Let's begin with the research needs of the P&G reader. That is already an over-simplification, because there is no "P&G reader" but rather some 28,000 APGA members plus 6,000 subscribers. Some few are researchers or theorists or advanced graduate students who are especially interested in research, but the overwhelming majority are practicing counselors in schools, colleges, agencies, and other settings. That relatively small number of researchers and theorists have many other journals available to them for their kinds of research needs. But our practitioners probably see P&G as one of their main sources for whatever research they are going to read about.

What kinds of research information does a practitioner want and need? Mostly, I think, research results that indicate which programs, methods, and materials are useful for the people and the situation with which he works. That sounds easy, but it isn't at all, because hardly any individual research reports can tell a practitioner whether a method or material is appropriate for him. Most studies, whether they assess client needs or evaluate guidance activities, are conducted in only one setting with one or maybe a few samples of people, and assess the work done by one or a few workers. How does Counselor Brown know whether Brown's setting and clientele are similar enough to Counselor Smith's and whether the method that was effective in Smith's hands will be effective in Brown's?

Any one study that really covered all the necessary variables—setting, client, and counselor—would end up as a thick monograph, certainly not the kind of thing that P&G can publish. In any case, that isn't much of a problem, because there are so few comprehensive studies of that kind. Instead what we have are much more limited studies that tell about one or two counselors in one agency or school in one city of one state. In my judgment, those studies have little to say to our readers, partly because of the studies' inherent limitations, but also because one

really needs to have a pretty high order of statistical and other technical sophistication to read most research reports with comprehension and an appropriate critical attitude.

But those little studies *should* be published someplace where they can be read by people who do have the appropriate interests and technical sophistication—that means mostly other researchers. Eventually, when enough little studies have been reported and the pros and cons of research design and statistical methods battled out, then maybe we are ready for somebody to pull the pieces together and tease out generalizations, conclusions, and recommendations for practitioners. *That* is the main kind of research information I think we need to publish in P&G. But it's a rare bird indeed who can do it—someone who understands not only the research but also the practitioner's needs. We receive very few research reviews of this kind and would welcome more.

Once in a while there is an individual research project that is appropriate for us. Usually it is a very practical kind of research that has immediate implications for practitioners, no matter what part of the country they are in or in what setting they work. Sometimes it is a study that seriously challenges something we have been taking for granted and that perhaps should be published just to alert us to that challenge. And sometimes the study brings such a fresh view, a new idea, that it would be mind-expanding and should be published for that reason alone. But those are all rare, in my experience.

This is how I see the situation today; the Editorial Board has reviewed this statement and has agreed that it reflects the sense of our meeting last March. We have concluded that we need to seek ways to increase the research dissemination role of P&G.

One thing we will do is try to arrange for a regular column that would help readers keep up to date on significant research in the field, but in a nontechnical manner. A second thing we will do is encourage the submission of articles that integrate the findings of research in a topical area and present the implications for practicing counselors in a critical, readable, and practical manner.

We will continue to review individual research reports and publish those few that seem to have something to say to a practitioner audience. But more often than not, we will probably suggest to those authors that P&G readers would be more interested in a detailed description of the program or practice the authors experimented with than the technical details of the research as research.

Thus we begin to take a fresh look at an old problem and ask our readers to join us by reacting to these suggestions and offering new ideas and new solutions. ∞ LG

Feedback and accountability

CHARLES J. PULVINO

MARSHALL P. SANBORN

This article describes a communications system for planning and carrying out guidance and counseling activities. In the proposed model not only professional team members but also consumers of professional services are regarded as active participants in all phases of guidance, from goal identification through outcome evaluation. The article stresses the importance of an adequate feedback system used by all participants and describes its relationship to counselor accountability.

MOST PEOPLE WOULD probably agree that evaluation is fundamental to the development of effective processes. Whether the goal is to produce industrial machines, devise effective surgical techniques, rehabilitate mental patients, or help youngsters learn to read, those who are responsible for the processes involved usually check to determine how effective their procedures are in achieving their goals. Those who are responsible for practical implementation of guidance and counseling programs, however, have often failed to take systematic steps to evaluate what they do. Consequently there is very little practical evidence currently available to indicate that existing counseling and guidance activities are worth doing. So far, counseling and guidance programs have been built and sustained mainly on faith.

Perhaps one of the reasons this condition exists is that counseling programs have enjoyed powerful support during the past 15 years. There has been wide public acceptance of the guidance needs of individuals, and heavy emphasis has been put on counseling in financial support programs for schools and colleges as well as for employment services, rehabilitation agencies, and other social institutions. State, regional, and federal regulating agencies have pressured local institutions to incorporate counseling and guidance into their programs. This financial and moral support has been an advantage for counselors in the short run. In the long run, however, it seems to have had the disadvantage of providing very little incentive for them to show that the processes they employ actually help accomplish the goals they are supposed to achieve.

Now the honeymoon is over. The public, the federal government, state agencies, local governing boards, and consumers of guidance services are beginning to ask exactly what counselors are accomplishing. Some people who had high hopes and offered strong support for counseling and guidance in past years are now wondering whether the needs they saw—and still see—are being met. The word *accountability*, which was scarcely

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heard in the '60's, is in common use today.

When spending levels for educational and social services are sharply curtailed, as they are now, people who write the checks take a hard look at "nonessential" items in their budgets. They have to set priorities, and first priorities usually go to activities that yield tangible results. Other programs are scrutinized to determine whether results warrant expenditures. Counseling programs are particularly vulnerable to such scrutiny when personnel who operate them cannot show to others how specific activities lead to specific results. Many a counselor is now in double trouble; not only must he collect the evaluational data he should have been collecting all along, but he must also devise language and procedures for interpreting results of evaluation meaningfully to those whom he serves.

The counselor must now subject himself and his program to the light of day. He must learn how to make involved persons aware of his functions. He must inform them, in language more exact than he has used in the past, of precisely what he is attempting to do; and he must help them know what he has or has not accomplished. He must learn to expect them to want evidence of counseling and guidance successes and failures. He must help boards of control and administrators secure information they need to make decisions about sustaining, curtailing, or improving services. And he must help other professionals who depend on him— and on whom he depends—to gain a better understanding of what to expect of counseling and guidance services and to determine whether expectations are met.

COMMUNICATIONS THEORY

A good program of accountability could be a blessing to the counselor, since it would provide a basis for developing a system of shared responsibility. Communications theory provides a foundation for such a system. Participants in the system must be able to transmit and receive information that is relatively unencumbered by the transmission process. It is therefore important that counselors have a working knowledge of communications theory and are able to use its elements to the mutual advantage of themselves and the recipients of their services.

The concept of feedback is central to communications theory. Thorough discussions of this concept may be found elsewhere (Dance, 1967; Samovar & Rintye, 1970; Watzlawick, 1967), but here we shall define feedback briefly as the response of one individual (receiver) to the verbal or nonverbal behavior of another (sender). Feedback is helical in the sense that it has the potentiality for changing direction and/or intensity of the original behavior and provides the opportunity for both the sender and the receiver to benefit from the transmission process.

The military use of spotters for guiding artillery is an example of the application of helical feedback. After the artillery fires, the spotter observes where bursts occur in relation to the target. He provides gunners with negative feedback (corrections in range and aim) or positive feedback (bursts on target) to improve effectiveness of the artillery. In this interaction both negative and positive feedback are constructive, since they are used to determine how well behavior and outcomes are related to intentions. Neither sender nor receiver regards negative feedback as destructive criticism; their lives depend on their functioning appropriately with a functional feedback system.

A communications example from the military may seem far afield from a counseling and guidance program, but it is not. Functionaries in nearly any system can improve their performance if they can develop a feedback system that helps them determine accurately the effects of what they do. Constructive feedback can

provide the means for the counselor, his co-professionals, and his clientele to better direct activities toward objectives and to determine systematically to what extent objectives are being attained. It has the additional effect of stressing for all participants the mutual responsibilities involved in counseling and guidance activities.

The accountability paradigm discussed below and represented in Figure 1 has been designed to demonstrate an ongoing helical feedback process. Inherent in this process is the idea that constructive feedback, either positive or negative, can facilitate movement toward desired objectives. Without feedback the total system would be inoperative, counselors would be isolated, and accountability would not exist. The model could be employed in any of a variety of counseling agencies where public needs and public accountability are crucial.
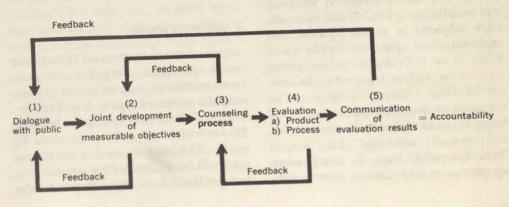
FIVE PHASES OF ACCOUNTABILITY

1. Dialogue with public.

Achievement of counseling and guidance goals is a joint responsibility of the counselor and his public. In schools, for example, the public includes several functionaries who are responsible for the development of students: the parents, the administration, the teaching faculty, the counselor, and the students themselves. Each functionary has a unique and equally important role in fulfilling this responsibility. The public provides demands or needs. The counselor provides expertise and follow-through activity. The counselor must understand public needs and resources in order to provide acceptable services, and the public must understand the counselor's expertise and their own responsibilities in order to set reasonable expectations. A communications system must be developed whereby the counselor and his public come to (a) mutual understanding of needs to be met, (b) agreement on goals, and (c) sharing of responsibility based on realistic role expectations for each functionary.

Toldson (1971) speaks to this point when he outlines specific steps for counselors to follow if they wish to bring "practical applications" of counseling into congruence with "theoretical ideas." His suggestions are aimed at facilitating counselor communication with the target population of teachers, students, administrators, parents, and community agencies. In general, his approach is to provide opportunities for communication through meetings, pamphlets, speeches, panel discussions, newspapers, informal

FIGURE 1
Accountability Paradigm

notes, bulletin board notices, and one-to-one conversations. Each method provides a medium for transmission of messages.

A message is most likely to have the same meaning for the receiver as it does for the sender if the opportunity for constructive feedback is incorporated into the system. Counselors must not only provide information; they must also allow the recipients of that information to question, alter, inspect, and challenge it. Beyond this, counselors must be willing to alter their own services and be able to effect changes in activities of others so that needs of all functionaries are realized. Provision for feedback will assure both counselor and constituent that counseling is truly a joint responsibility.

2. Joint development of measurable objectives.

Since counseling is a joint responsibility, it is imperative that all participants help establish goals. Statements of counseling objectives must be developed in general terms as well as in terms applicable to specific situations and particular individuals. In addition, objectives must be developed so that final products exist in operational (assessable) terms.

Objectives stated in global or general terminology are usually not operational and do not lend themselves to evaluative procedures. Consider, for example, the following item taken directly from a statement of objectives drawn up by one guidance department: "To help each individual realize his fullest potential so that he may lead a personally satisfying and socially useful life." If this statement were subjected to public scrutiny, several important questions might arise. What is an individual's "fullest potential?" How will we know when he realizes it? What evidence can we secure to demonstrate that this goal has been or is being achieved? What is the criterion for a "personally satisfying" life? For a "socially useful" life? Is there some agreement on this? Can we state in con-

crete terms the specific things we will look for to determine the extent to which these goals are reached? How are these goals apropos in a special way to the guidance program, as distinct from other school programs? Discussion among functionaries on these and other questions should lead to more exact goal statements, better agreement among all functionaries on objectives to be achieved, and improved understanding of roles and responsibilities involved.

Once goals have been specified in operational terms, the counselor will have to provide an understanding of how his competencies and those of other functionaries can be used to achieve the goals. This again will call for two-way communication and will tend to emphasize the shared responsibility involved. The counselor, as a representative of an institution, will be responsible for providing feedback that will keep expectations within the limits imposed by his position and his expertise. The other functionaries will be responsible for helping to keep services within a range of real needs.

In schools, one desired result of joint development of objectives might be that faculty, parents, and students would come to understand the school counseling program as one that is systematic, coherent, and aimed at positive developmental goals rather than one that functions merely as a crisis intervention service that operates—more or less willy-nilly—in response to priorities dictated by whatever emergency is at hand.

3. Counseling process.

Objectives can be attained through the use of appropriate counseling and guidance procedures. Determination of those procedures deemed appropriate, however, will result from communication between the counselor and those with whom he works. This is not to say that the process used will be determined by constituents, but feedback from constituents to the

counselor can provide information relevant to the determination of specific processes most likely to be beneficial in particular situations. The processes agreed upon may include not only activities of the counselor but also responsibility and action of the counselee and others who are involved by virtue of their association with the counselee. It is important that the counselor, the counselee, and other involved persons agree on goals that are beneficial to the counselee and consistent with the general purposes and sanctions of the agency. Such agreement is not only a necessary prerequisite to appropriate action and cooperation, it is also fundamental to subsequent evaluation and to the public's understanding of the function of counseling and guidance.

Feedback provides an additional use in the counseling relationship. While counselors must be aware of the needs of clients, they must also be aware that needs are not static but are constantly in a state of change. With this in mind, counselors must help individuals develop the ability to use feedback procedures. Feedback from client to counselor can help assure that the counselor will keep attuned to current needs. Without this provision counselors may lose effectiveness and tend to be "behind" the individual rather than "with" him.

Consider the counselor who endeavors to help a client secure employment. Initial discussions may center on personal values and attitudes toward work, while the topic of later sessions may be the individual's job behavior. At both levels the counselor and client must share responsibility for outcomes. For the process to be helical each party must know what effects his input has upon the understanding of the other. On the first level —when personal values and attitudes are discussed—the counselee must provide the counselor with information that will correct the counselor's misunderstanding of a situation. Such statements as "No, that's not quite right; I used to feel that

way, but I don't anymore" help the counselor to know the direction and intensity of the counselee's thinking. Counselee feedback provides the basis for movement in the direction that had been jointly established by counselor and counselee.

On the second level—that of manifested behavior—the counselee must be encouraged to discuss his previous job-oriented behaviors. Discussions should focus on counselee input as a source for identifying and modifying counselee job performance behaviors.

Once the counselee secures employment, feedback to the counselor provides the means for refinement of newly acquired job behaviors. Counseling should continue until counselee behaviors become consistent with originally established objectives.

4. Evaluation.

When applied to counseling, evaluative procedures must have two focuses. First, counselors must be concerned with whether they are achieving objectives that they, in conjunction with their public, have found to be important. This procedure can be called product evaluation, and it may often yield suggestions for adjustments to be made in the way in which the agency relates to its clientele. Such adjustments might include: increasing use of independent study facilities by teachers or students; providing more suitable placement of individuals in work-study programs; improving means for college-bound students to decide on higher education goals; effecting institutional policies or practices that enable the system to relate more appropriately to individuals.

A second focus of evaluation must be on the process employed in reaching stated objectives. Was group counseling as effective as individual counseling in helping junior high school students understand the consequences of peer pressure? Were role-modeling techniques

effective in improving work habits? Were reinforcement methods appropriate for increasing the length of time chronically unemployed stayed with particular jobs?

In evaluation of both product and process, feedback can be a valuable ally to the counselor. Through feedback counselors can determine if stated goals are actually appropriate, if clients have made progress toward desired goals, and if the process used to achieve goals leads to desired changes. Without systematic feedback the counselor is unable to tell if progress is being made or if the methods used have beneficial, neutral, or detrimental effects on the recipient.

5. Communication of evaluation results.

The final step, that of reporting evaluative undertakings, has major significance. It is through this step that counselors determine whether evaluative procedures are appropriate for measuring counseling outcomes and processes and whether the counseling program is meeting the needs of the individual and achieving expectations previously agreed on with others in the individual's environment.

Suppose, for example, a teacher in an elementary school tells a counselor that one of his students, Steven, is overly withdrawn and shy in classroom activities. The counselor, through discussion with Steven, his teacher, and his parents, decides to use a small group reinforcement modeling technique in an attempt to reduce Steven's classroom shyness. The counselor solicits the teacher's aid in carrying out the plan. After a period of time the counselor evaluates the method, determining whether it has been successful in affecting Steven's classroom behavior. Evaluation centers around the perceptions of Steven, his teacher, his parents, and possibly his classmates. Feedback from each of these sources is used to generate conclusions that are then discussed with all significant parties to determine whether other procedures must be employed or whether progress is sufficient to warrant termination.

Through this final step participants in the process reach agreement on whether stated objectives have been attained. A model for determining methods of improving services to individuals has been furnished, and provision has been made for examining whether efforts involved in the process were warranted in terms of outcomes.

ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability will be the natural result of effective employment of the five steps outlined above. Evaluative procedures used, both short-term and long-range, must be aimed at answering the ultimate question: What difference did counseling processes make in the lives of the individuals with whom we worked? If, through application of the above model, counselors are able to answer this question, they should be able to show how their existence benefits society in ways that are unique and are unlikely to be duplicated by any other school or social service.

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Accountability: a boon to guidance

CHARLES W. HUMES II

Accountability for guidance: How appropriate is it? Can it aid in educational reform? Is it a professional help or hindrance? The author examines these questions, placing emphasis on the PPBS model and showing samples of program structure and program analysis based on that model. He concludes that the accountability movement can be a positive force if implemented properly.

AS EDUCATION, with its many fiscal and other problems, moves into the '70's, there is a cry for accountability. It is being demanded by legislators, parents, board of education members, and superintendents of schools. Although accountability may be defined and described in a number of ways, there is little doubt that the public is demanding accountability for results. As school budgets increase and money is harder to come by, there tends to be a universal demand for this kind of accounting. That is, given certain inputs, what are the specified outputs? This brand of accountability is being demanded of every educational program, including guidance.

As guidance services are being pressed for such an accounting of results, there is the usual retreat by practitioners into the "not measurable" defense. Guidance, they assert, has such an intangible quality that measurement is impossible. Furthermore, they suggest that even to consider such a departure from standard procedure is rank nonsense, for the structure of guidance is evidence enough that its services are needed and useful. Over the years guidance essentially has been justified simply because it is an established and traditional service, but apparently this time-honored rationale is no longer being accepted by the public and boards of education.

The public has become increasingly disenchanted with what guidance purports to accomplish. While such disenchantment may be caused largely by lack of understanding of the guidance mission and purpose, it is an inescapable fact that guidance has not produced a descriptive format that is readily understood by its consumers. In the absence of such a format it has been virtually impossible to discuss process and end product. Other educational programs are being asked to produce assessable results; guidance must also face up to its responsibilities in this area.

ARE THE RESULTS MEASURABLE?

The question of whether or not the results of guidance services are measurable is an interesting one. The only people who really ask this question are the practitioners in the field. Educational researchers and most counselor educators would respond in the affirmative. Many counselors would not. Why this difference of opinion?

Anything that exists in finite form is potentially measurable, and where there

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is cause, there follows effect. Cause and effect are the basic ingredients for any measurement exercise. The difficulty that arises for guidance, particularly from the standpoint of the practitioner, is that the cause, or input, is frequently so fuzzy, unstructured, and unmanageable that there is no way of defining effect, or output. The present components of guidance services, i.e., counseling, pupil appraisal, educational and occupational information, etc., have been around for 50 years. If counselors don't know by this time what these components are to accomplish, then perhaps the services shouldn't be in the guidance repertoire.

For too long there has been an obsession with measuring the outcomes of counseling only, not much consideration having been given to the other aspects of guidance services. At the practitioner level there is no longer room to wax anxious over the different counseling theories and stances as they relate to behavioral change. Let the counselor educators and researchers worry about that one, as they have been for so many years. (What passes for counseling in the public schools would not begin to meet the criteria for such investigations anyway!) The practitioner in the school ought to be alert to the fact that his contacts with students should result in an amelioration of the presenting problem. If the presenting problem is reduced in severity, the guidance contact has been successful. In the language of accountability there is a reliance on changes in criterion-referenced measures as opposed to normative-referenced measures.

A criterion-referenced measure relates an individual's progress to an absolute performance standard rather than comparing his progress to that of other individuals. The typical standardized test is a comparison or normative-referenced measure. For example, if grades increase as a result of guidance contact in an area where guidance contact is the variable, then that is the basis for a determination of effectiveness. It is therefore possible to determine the degree of accomplishment if one sets up appropriate conditions and treatments. In such a process the sophistication of the measurement is less important than the pragmatic quality of relating cause to effect. Assessment used to be considered impossible; the use of criterion-referenced measures has made it feasible.

USEFULNESS IN REFORM

The dilemma of the school counselor continues to be role delineation, or role clarification. There has been a significant body of research on the reasons for this role confusion. As one approaches the role issue, it becomes apparent that one of its main concerns is the question of who determines what a counselor should do in a given school situation.

At the secondary level it is rather well established that the guiding force is the building principal, and the duties he assigns to counselors are therefore in keeping with his perception of building needs. A director of guidance or pupil personnel services then usually attempts to develop a professional role consonant with a predetermined functional job description. Counselors are well aware of this schizoid aspect of their operation but have been willing to live with the situation. However, this order of business represents a preaccountability paradigm. As school districts get into accountability, there emerges the realization that programs come first and building operations second.

A very popular approach to accountability is through Planning, Programming, Budgeting Systems (PPBS), a management technique that fulfills all the requirements for accountability. Within its structure is the machinery for planning programs, choosing alternatives, distributing resources, and verifying results. Program structure is the core because it is recognized as a definable way to regulate input in any activity. In a school

district there may be a breakdown of all functions into a wide variety of programs ranging from Art Education to Plant Facilities. As programs are identified, goals and objectives emerge for the separate programs that state in a clear manner the purpose of the program. The goals, objectives, and evaluative criteria develop in several ways, but they always involve some personnel representation from the program being studied; for example, the guidance or pupil personnel services director as well as counselors participate in formulating guidance program structure. Hence, from the beginning there is an emphasis on professionally oriented duties and obligations. When these goals, objectives, and evaluative criteria are established, the implementation falls logically within this framework.

Wellman (1967) presents one approach to the development and use of goals, objectives, and evaluative criteria. In his design guidance objectives are classified into educational, vocational, and social domains. An adaptation of Wellman's model was developed in preliminary draft form by a task force and sponsored in part by the California State Department of Education (Task Force to Develop Operational Objectives, 1970). This preliminary workbook resulted in a general monograph (Sullivan & O'Hare, 1971). Some illustrative samples from the more detailed 1970 workbook follow. In the 1971 monograph a four-step rather than a six-step format is used, the four steps being Situation, Population, Outcome, and Process.

EDUCATIONAL

Goal: To attain personal satisfaction from educational experiences

Objective: For the student to pursue further education (after high school) consistent with his measured ability, past achievement, and interests

Situation: Given an upper class 10–12 urban high school with an enrollment of 1,500 (with an average IQ of 121) of whom 95 percent complete college preparatory curricula, and with 6 group level counselors and one college and scholarship counselor and

Population: Given a random sample of 1/5 of the class of 19— who complete follow-up questionnaires one year after graduation from high school

Treatment: Following a senior year guidance program that included biweekly group counseling sessions with all 12th grade pupils whose plans for further education were inconsistent with their measured ability, past achievements, and interests, and who subsequently changed their educational goals in the direction of consistency as judged by their counselors

Outcome: Eighty percent will have completed one year of college and indicate they plan to continue.

VOCATIONAL

Goal: To implement vocational choices effectively

Objective: For the student to make adjustments necessary to maintain consistent progress toward achievement of vocational goals

Situation: Given a three-year high school in a suburban area and

Population: Tenth grade pupils

Treatment: Following participation in a series of 12 career programs designed to help pupils refine their career goals presented by counselors and representatives of vocational levels

Outcome: Ninety percent of the pupils will select courses directly related to their stated goals.

SOCIAL

Goal: To demonstrate social adequacy consistently

Objective: For the student to seek new social experiences actively and to cope with them adequately

Situation: Given a secondary school in an upper middle class socioeconomic

area at the beginning of the second quarter

Population: Ten 11th grade girls defined as social isolates by the physical education and English teachers, using a sociogram

Treatment: After three individual counselor-student conferences

Outcome: Eighty percent will join one school club, will attend two school functions, will list three different reasons for their isolation, and will form friendships with at least one different person in each of their classes by the end of the third quarter.

In these samples the treatments and outcomes are based on the goals and objectives, so none of this can be significantly altered at the operational level if the program goals are to be realized. Within such a schema, therefore, the seeds for guidance reform exist. A more general approach to the development of goals and objectives has also appeared (Humes, 1972).

Following planning and programming in the PPBS approach is the allocation of financial resources. During the budgeting phase the impact of program goals and objectives take concrete form. In the PPBS model monies are ultimately allocated on the basis of program needs and weaknesses. In the case of guidance services, as in other programs, there is a direct relationship between what is to be accomplished and dollars expended. Needless to say, the flow of dollars controls in large measure the quantity of services offered. All things considered, such a budgetary approach should help guidance, for the guidance function is hampered in most districts by a lack of personnel and other needed resources.

The implications for the influence of such program development and implementation on the counselor's role are immense. If a program structure has been developed and there are measurable objectives attached to it, then there is only one way that a counselor can operate: by meeting the demands of the program. If he functions in another way, the evaluative criteria will not be met and the standards set forth for the program will be violated. Program analysis, which is the PPBS step beyond program accounting, will uncover quickly the reasons that objectives are not being met. It is at this point that individual programs take precedence over building needs and individual supervisory styles. If accountability is tied to PPBS, it is absolutely necessary to move into program analysis.

Program analysis will pinpoint areas of weakness, and program changes based on cost effectiveness will ensue if predetermined objectives are to be realized. Following is an example of a program analysis in the Greenwich (Connecticut) Public Schools (Greenwich Board of Education, 1970).

PROGRAM CHANGE: To offer substantive changes in the related personnel areas in 1972–73 so that counselor role can receive better delineation in accordance with the recommendations of the American School Counselor Association.

Rationale:

a. The press of extraneous duties is delimiting counselor role.

b. It will require more counselor time to quantify the total guidance program.

1. Alternative A (Priority 1): To obtain clerical or paraprofessional assistance (part time) in three junior high schools.

Advantage: This preferred arrangement will yield the most assistance for the fewest dollars.

Disadvantage: Clerical and paraprofessional personnel may not be able to fulfill the purposes intended.

Cost 1st Year $7,700
2nd Year $8,350
3rd Year $9,000

2. Alternative B: To obtain addi-

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tional administrative assistance (part time) for the building principals in three junior high schools.

Advantage: Such administrators would also be able to function in related educational areas, which could yield a full-time position.

Disadvantage: The arrangement would prove to be the most costly and perhaps have least impact on the presenting problems.

Cost 1st Year $24,525
2nd Year $25,650
3rd Year $26,925

There are presently many school systems that have elected to use the PPBS approach exclusive of the analysis phase. Whether a school district uses PPBS or a different method of demonstrating accountability, there is little possibility of reform without an analysis of the reasons for nonattainment of guidance objectives and subsequent recommendations for program changes.

ACCOUNTABILITY: REALLY A BOON

As the debate rages over whether accountability in education is a boon or a bane, the empirical evidence suggests that accountability may well save the day for guidance. At a time when every part of the educational system is under attack and personnel are being capriciously eliminated, the only programs that can survive are those that can be justified on the basis of measurable criteria. Although the issue of worthwhileness is being forced on counselors in a threatening way, it comes at a propitious time.

The past several years have seen a gradual erosion of confidence in what guidance can produce in many school situations. This erosive condition contains the seeds of the eventual decline and fall of guidance, so it is imperative that counselors meet the challenge of accountability. Through the medium of criterion-referenced objectives there can be a demonstration of program effectiveness.

Since role clarification will automatically grow out of predetermined goals and objectives of the guidance program, the traditional problem—that of someone outside the professional family determining what is to be done—will be eliminated. If counselors are finally permitted to do what they have been trained for, there need be no barriers to the attainment of goals.

The creation and development of behavioral objectives or criterion-referenced measures will not be easy. All parts of the educational enterprise are finding it difficult to come to grips with measurable objectives. Inasmuch as most of what guidance purports to do falls within the affective domain, the task is doubly difficult. The counselor, in approaching the task, should determine what goals and objectives are appropriate for his situation and not be too concerned about national trends. This is possible with criterion-referenced measures because there is no need for excessive concern with normative measures. Taking all factors into account, it would appear that accountability is a boon to guidance.

CONCLUSIONS

Accountability is here to stay, at least for a while, and school guidance will not escape scrutiny. In order not to be overwhelmed by the press for measurable results, counselors would do well to adopt a positive point of view, confident in the belief that guidance activities can be measured if conditions and parameters are known. Such measurement is now possible through the use of criterion-referenced techniques. It is folly to continue asserting that the results of guidance activities are not measurable when other programs of equal complexity are being so assessed.

The reform possibilities for guidance inherent in the accountability movement are present in a dramatic way. This is evidenced particularly through the PPBS management approach, where educa-

tional operations are broken down into content programs. The essence of this approach is that program needs supersede building requirements.

As the arguments continue as to whether accountability in education is a boon or a bane, it will probably prove to be a boon for some programs and a bane for others. In the case of guidance, where it has been difficult over the years to establish a districtwide sequence, accountability may not only prove to be a boon but in fact may actually salvage a declining specialty.

Accountability assessment in guidance carries with it a certain risk—that the measurement may be superficial. To avoid superficiality the measurement should deal with important content areas in guidance and should tap the nature and intent of the program; it should not be merely an exercise in quantitative legerdemain designed to satisfy a public demand. Hopefully every school district will control the risk by instituting its own unique procedures.

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Appearance should be a healthy membrane,
Permitting osmosis selectively,
Prohibiting entrance that causes pain,
And seeking arrival of empathy.

Distorted it becomes a tangled mess,
An unmoving shell that will never yield,
Guarding from all eyes internal distress,
And burying the wounds that never healed.

A tattered membrane is dangerous too,
Extraneous prodding forces rent and tear,
The inner workings reach the public view,
And provide hardy food for hostile peers.

A membrane must its inner world protect,
But neither love nor sympathy reject.

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The contract as a counseling technique

G. PATIENCE THOMAS

BETTY EZELL

The contract system has been successfully employed in recent years as a method of conducting individual academic study. The purpose of this article is to demonstrate how an adaptation of this system may be used to provide an innovative approach not only to counseling but also to other segments of the school guidance program. Besides providing a logical, self-directed approach to problem solving, the contract system forces the student to assume responsibility for his own behavior. The rewards and punishments inherent in this system are only those the individual metes out to himself.

A RELATIVELY RECENT educational innovation, the contract system, has become popular in the high schools as a means of conducting individual studies and other types of learning experiences for advanced students. Its usefulness, however, need not be limited either to gifted students or to a strictly academic setting, for the contract system can also be effectively employed in the counseling situation.

Although there are numerous variations, the basic features of the contract system are as follows:

1. The student and teacher, in conference, decide on the material to be covered during the term of the contract.

2. The student and teacher agree on the method or methods of evaluation to be used in determining how well the contract has been fulfilled in terms of the grade desired by the student.

3. The student and teacher agree upon terminal dates for the completion of segments of the contract or the contract as a whole.

4. The student and teacher write out the terms of the contract, and both of them sign it.

5. The student then proceeds to fulfill the terms of the contract, while the teacher acts as a resource person and checks on the student's progress through regular conferences.

6. At the end of the contract period all the evaluations are assembled, and if the student has successfully fulfilled the contract, he is assigned the grade for which he has contracted.

7. If the student has not fulfilled the contract, he may be granted additional time, be assigned a lower grade than the one contracted for, or simply fail to receive credit for the course.

CONTRACTS IN THE COUNSELING PROCESS

The basic concepts of the contract system are easily adaptable to the counseling process. Let us first examine the general method and then look at some actual examples of this system in operation.

In the typical school setting the coun-

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selor may call the student in to discuss a problem, or the student may seek assistance on his own initiative. In either case the first step toward a solution is to agree on the existence of a problem or area of concern. The second step is to define the problem as accurately as possible. At this point it may become apparent that the topic under consideration is part of a broader situation and that the scope of the interview should be enlarged. Counselors also discover frequently that the counselee does not possess enough information about the subject to make a realistic decision or that certain kinds of test results might be helpful. If this is the case, the necessary information might be obtained before proceeding any further toward a solution, or information gathering might be included as part of the contract.

Once the counseling process has reached the point at which some plan of action can be formulated, the counselor must decide whether or not a counseling contract would be appropriate. This decision would be based on the nature of the problem and the needs and characteristics of the counselee. In general, relatively simple behavioral problems involving a lack either of self-discipline, judgment, or motivation lend themselves best to a contractual approach. Other kinds of problems have employed this approach successfully, however; these will be described later.

If deemed appropriate, the counselor should now suggest and explain the counseling contract. A counselee familiar with the contract system in academic areas will need only a brief explanation. For others a more detailed description will be necessary. The counselor should stress the points that: (a) the counselee need not choose to employ a contract if he does not like the idea; (b) the contract will consist of a plan of action worked out by the counselee and the counselor; (c) this plan of action will require certain kinds of be-

havior on the part of the counselee; (d) the counselor will act as a resource person and assist the counselee in checking on his own progress toward a solution; (e) the only rewards or punishments in this system are those the counselee imposes or grants himself. These points explained, it is now up to the counselee to accept or reject this approach to his problem.

If the contractual approach is accepted, the next step is to draw up the contract. Before this is done the counselor should help the counselee examine as many alternative courses of action as possible, and the counselee should select the one he feels will be most satisfactory. His contract thus becomes a list of behaviors consistent with the course of action he has selected. It may not be possible at this point to construct an entire contract, especially if a need for more information has been indicated. If this is the case, only the first part of the contract should be drawn up, with other sections to be added as the counselee progresses toward a solution. In any event, the contract can always be amended as new kinds of behavior become possible or previous tentative solutions prove unworkable.

Through the use of the counseling contract the counselee is encouraged to define his problem clearly, work out the steps that will lead to a successful solution, and act on the plan he has drawn up. The counselor's role is to help the counselee evaluate his progress, help him formulate new plans, and contribute information by tapping resources that are not available to the counselee. However, as indicated by his signature on the contract, the counselee assumes the responsibility for solving his own problems. In other words, the counseling contract provides for individual study toward maturity.

THE CONTRACT SYSTEM IN ACTION

Perhaps a description of some actual situations in which the contract system was

successfully employed will serve to illustrate how it can work.

Tony was 17, a senior in high school, and a chronic class-cutter. Acting on the complaints of his teachers, his counselor had called him in at intervals during the previous two years to discuss the problem, but Tony's behavior remained unchanged. At the beginning of his senior year Tony came in to ask for help. He was afraid that his poor attendance would prevent him from graduating, yet he possessed no insight into why he felt compelled to cut class.

The counselor suggested the contract system as a possible approach to Tony's problem. She explained that it had worked successfully with other students and might help Tony resist the temptation to cut class. The idea of contract setting appealed to Tony, and he became quite involved in the process of working out the terms of the agreement. Tony's contract stipulated that he would come to school every day, have his mother call the counselor when he was sick, and bring a note from home if he missed any class. An added suggestion from the counselor was that Tony drop by her office at noon every day and indicate by the "peace" sign that he was in school and going to class. The contract was dated and signed by Tony and his counselor, and each kept a copy.

Tony religiously checked in every day for a month. At the end of this period the counselor initiated an interview with him, and Tony reported that he had cut only one class since signing the contract. He now felt secure enough to proceed without the supportive daily contact with the counselor. Seven months later Tony was passing all his subjects and had ordered his cap and gown. The counselor had received no further complaints about his absences.

Cindy, one of the most popular and active girls in the junior class, made an appointment with her counselor to discuss plans for an upcoming school event. In the middle of their talk Cindy suddenly burst into tears. The counselor learned that Cindy felt absolutely overwhelmed by extracurricular responsibilities, school assignments, community activities, and her relationships with her family and friends. Everyone seemed to look to Cindy for leadership, and she had become so frustrated in trying to meet so many needs that she had lost her own sense of direction.

The contract system was again suggested, but with a slightly different approach. Cindy was asked to tell the counselor about all the things she needed to do and was involved in, and the counselor made a list of them. She and Cindy then drew up a two-part contract. The first part contained a list of top-priority activities and obligations, the ones Cindy really wanted to continue. The second part was composed of responsibilities she could refuse, delegate to another, or resign from.

Two weeks later Cindy reported that she had dropped all the activities in part two of her contract and was refusing to become involved in anything not already listed in part one. Cindy was still a very busy girl, but she had learned just how much she could handle.

While not every problem lends itself to a contractual approach, many do fit into this pattern quite readily. The authors have successfully used contract setting in the following situations:

A girl wants to break up with her boyfriend but does not know how to do so.

A boy would like to improve his relationship with his parents but cannot seem to communicate with them.

A boy repeatedly gets low grades because of poor study habits and lack of self-discipline.

A girl and her teacher have a personality conflict that seems to be the student's fault.

A student must tell his or her parents about a serious problem (pregnancy, failing, etc.) but is afraid to do so and keeps putting it off.

A student transfers from another school and cannot seem to make any new friends.

ADVANTAGES OF THE CONTRACT SYSTEM

This system is so similar to the counseling process already used by many school counselors that it can be easily employed in the school setting. Moreover, it possesses several advantages over other present sytems. These are as follows:

1. The contract provides a written record of the decisions made by the counselee and the course of action he intends to pursue.

2. The formal nature of the contract often acts as a motivational device for

those counselees who are inclined to procrastinate.

3. Breaking the contract into sections, with an evaluation taking place after each section, gives the counselee a feeling of progress toward a solution to his problem.

4. The contract forces the counselee to assume responsibility for his own behavior.

5. The introduction of a time limit, when feasible, also acts as a motivational factor.

6. The contract system tends to insure that the counselee will return to the counselor at regular intervals for an evaluation of his progress. In fact, such interviews can be scheduled in advance within the terms of the contract.

FAILURES AND DISADVANTAGES

Some contracts, of course, are not successfully fulfilled. A variety of reasons may contribute to their failure. The system may not have been the correct technique to apply to the situation in question. Perhaps the student could not reward or punish himself in the absence of external sanctions, or perhaps he lacked the necessary internal discipline and motivation to fulfill the terms of the contract. Students frequently have difficulty in defining problems, especially personal ones, and in setting up the goals to be reached by a contract. Often a contract appears simple on the surface but becomes harder and harder to live up to as time passes. Some students simply lose interest and give up. An individual who really does not want to change his behavior or solve his problem may agree to a contract and then break it when he faces his first real challenge.

Following are two examples of failures from the authors' experiences.

Sally Ann was referred to the counselor by the girls' physical education teacher. Although she was an A student in all other subjects, Sally Ann consistently refused to change her clothes and participate in gym class; she was therefore failing in this subject. Although she contracted to abide by the class regulations, her good intentions lasted only two days. After this brief trial, she reported to the counselor that the class was "dumb" and that she much preferred to sit in the bleachers and read a book, even if it meant failing. Consequently, she did both.

Jim was a bright student who scraped by in his classes with a minimum of effort. He rarely brought books, paper, or pencil to class, and he was the leader of a group of boys who patterned themselves after him in this respect. Jim contracted to come to class armed with work materials over a one-month trial period. After two weeks he reported that he wished to break his contract because the boys in his gang were giving him a hard time about his change in behavior. The approval of his peers was apparently his most important consideration. When questioned as to whether or not breaking his contract bothered him, Jim replied that it didn't, because people cheated and broke their promises all the time.

The disadvantages of the contract system may be summarized as follows:

1. A student must really want to change his behavior or solve his problem.

2. The counselor cannot hold a student to his contract.

3. There is no external system of rewards or punishments that the counselor can apply.

4. It may be difficult to define problems, goals, and contract terms.

5. The novelty of the contract may wear off with time.

6. Fulfilling a contract is not always as easy as it first seems to be.

7. It is probably too superficial a method to apply to deeply rooted emotional or behavioral problems in which the student does not understand his own motivation.

8. A student can fulfill a contract without gaining any real insight into the causes of his original behavior or the reasons this behavior is better.

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GUIDANCE AS A CONTRACT SYSTEM

The usefulness of the contract is not limited to counseling students with problems; it can easily be applied to the entire guidance program. It is possible to draw up for any phase of the program a contract that would be equally applicable to every student in the school. For example, each student could be given an individual inventory contract in which he agrees to supply the counselor with certain necessary personal information to which the counselor can then add test results and other material that is pertinent.

Theoretically, it would also be possible to draw up a general contract covering every facet of the guidance program, with the exception of the counseling service, which each student would agree to fulfill. A contract of this nature should provide for regularly scheduled interviews with the counselor so each student can check on his progress through the various phases of the program. The contract might also provide for the student to take an active part in reporting placement and follow-up information to the school after his graduation. This type of contract might also motivate more students to consult their counselors, and it would fit in well with the material covered in a guidance course. Admittedly, this type of program would probably take more time than most counselors have to give at pres-

ent, but it might well be worth some consideration for the future.

OTHER APPLICATIONS

The contract system is also applicable in dealing with "problem" students or in handling cases where simple behavior modification is being attempted. Once a student has discovered that his present attitudes and behaviors are not successful in achieving his goals, he may be ready to contract with the counselor, administrator, or teacher in charge of the case for the kinds of behavior that will solve the problem and facilitate his adjustment. If group counseling is being employed with certain kinds of students, it is also possible to draw up a contract between the counselor and the group. This often helps to motivate the weaker members of the group, for each member must fulfill the contract in order for the group to meet its commitment.

Employment of the contract system as a counseling technique seems particularly applicable to the school situation, since the contract had its inception as an educational tool. Counselors who are working in other kinds of settings and institutions, however, will find this technique easily adaptable to their own counseling situations. While contract setting is certainly not a panacea for every problem the counselor deals with, we are proposing it as an innovative addition to existing procedures.

SQUARE PEG

I'm a square peg
looking for a square hole.
Maybe no one
makes square holes anymore.

There are round holes
and oval holes
and heart-shaped holes
and even free-form ones.
But no square holes.
Every peg needs a hole.

I keep trying to fit,
forcing myself
into a round or oval
or heart-shaped hole.
The first time I found
a free-form hole,
I was sure
it would fit.
But it didn't.
Now I believe
I'll never find a square hole
so I'll keep trying the others.

Lately I've noticed
the corners are beginning to wear
because of the forcing.
If I keep trying
perhaps I'll soon be rounded enough
to fit a round hole.
I hope so.

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The short, unhappy life of student dissent

LEWIS B. MORGAN

EDWARD A. WICAS

Student dissent was a short-lived phenomenon of the late 1960's. After a brief run at hope and glory, it was buried, circa 1970, by the combined efforts of high school faculties and lay populations served by them. The cause of death was antipathy on the part of these influential adults, and the killing blow was delivered by innumerable tradition-bound professional educators—especially administrators—who didn't want the disease to spread. In this article the authors look at change and dissent prior to the funeral and suggest that counselors, at least, might do well to consider exhuming the body.

THE VERY WORDS *change* and *dissent* serve to conjure up in professional educators an awesome image of institutional upheaval bordering on civil strife and anarchy. Although 1971–72 saw a general tapering off of student activism and dissident behavior, educators remember well the storms and stresses that many of the nation's colleges and high schools underwent during the late 1960's and early 1970's. Perhaps educators fear that this year is the lull before the next, more fatal, storm. In any event, in listening to and reading what educational administrators are currently saying, one gets the distinct impression that they are crossing all their fingers while rubbing a rabbit's foot with their palms in the hope that the students in their charge will stay cool, or calm, or apathetic, or whatever—as long as they don't start rocking the educational boat again.

The issues that stood at the core of the student rebellion of the past few years—the irrelevance of contemporary education, the institutions' unwillingness to allow students to be involved in shaping their own education and future, the rock-ribbed hypocrisy of elders in dealing with youth and social concerns—are, to a large extent, still issues. But perhaps now, because students feel even more helpless to effect any real, permanent, meaningful change, the issues have been forgotten or suppressed by all but the most radical members of the student population, with the result that most college campuses and high schools have returned to a period of comparative tranquility, and business and education go on as usual.

THE "STUDENT MOVEMENT"

Let us review briefly the recent past to study the evolution and dissolution of the so-called student movement, especially as it pertained to the nation's secondary schools. The Berkeley uprising, the commitment of many students to the civil rights cause, and the burgeoning anti-Vietnam war feeling of the mid-

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1960's all played a major part in triggering dissent and disorder on many of the college campuses in this country. And at first it was strictly that—a college-based phenomenon. Before too long, however, increasing evidence cropped up that these disturbances had filtered down into the high schools, especially in urban areas. Westin (1969) reported that in the four-month period from November 1968 to February 1969, 348 *serious* disruptions took place in high schools in 38 states and the District of Columbia. Trump and Hunt (1969) found that 67 percent of urban and suburban high schools and 53 percent of rural high schools surveyed were experiencing student protests of one kind or another.

To any but the most Pollyannish observer there seemed little doubt that high schools were destined to be, as one student put it, the "next battleground" (Karpel, 1969). And many authorities feared that these would turn out to be even bloodier battlegrounds than the colleges and universities had been, simply because high school dissidents tended to behave more impulsively, less predictably, and more violently than their college-age counterparts.

The issues? They were in abundance, especially at the local level. Students were distressed over school dress codes, including such restrictions as limits on hair and skirt lengths. Blacks became militant about issues such as the lack of black culture courses, the institution of holidays for black nationalist events, and discriminatory practices of long standing. Students complained about an irrelevant curriculum, an unfair grading system, and insensitive teachers, counselors, and administrators. The school's code of discipline was attacked with vehemence, not only by many students and some of their parents, but by ACLU lawyers as well. Students asked for draft counselors, ombudsmen, representation on the board of education, an "open campus" system, and they began to form SDS chapters and

publish underground newspapers. For a while, it seemed as though they wished to change almost every aspect of the school's structure.

In the year or two that has transpired since high schools have become the central "battleground," many educators have been forced to look carefully at some of the traditions, regulations, and procedures that had contributed to making so many of their schools so sadly outdated. Some things changed. Male students' hair was allowed to grow longer (as long as it was "clean"); illegal locker searches ceased; some disciplinary codes became more lenient and more reasonable; some black students' voices began to be heard. But in many locales the change was short-lived and even illusory. A case in point: Mark Shedd, the former superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, lost his job largely because of his liberal stance in promulgating a "Students' Bill of Rights," which later became the focal point in his critics' attack upon him and his policies. And so it begins to appear that the pendulum is now poised at a position where it can swing either forward or backward, depending in large part on what people—laymen, educators, and students—want their schools, and education, to be and become.

What precisely do these constituent groups want their schools to become? In an effort to determine what climate existed among the professional staff of the high schools, we decided to survey a number of educators—teachers, counselors, and principals—on their attitudes toward change and dissent as it applied on the local level. Obviously, the attitudes these educators had were bound to be crucial factors in either the facilitation or the deterrence of high school students' attempts at effecting some sort of change within their schools. That is to say, if enough educators were receptive to meaningful change, students would have a powerful ally in their ef-

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forts to make their schools relevant institutions for the 1970's. On the other hand, if a school's faculty was resistant to change, students would have a tough row to hoe, since they would be bucking the school's establishment.

THE STUDY

Inasmuch as there were no standardized measuring instruments available for this type of research, a 40-item questionnaire was developed through a series of pilot studies. The questionnaire sought to ascertain those areas of most immediate concern to high school students and faculties. The questionnaire was comprised of those items judged to be "most liberal, most innovative, most radical" by a panel of social psychologists. Four broad areas of change and dissent were readily identified: (a) changes in school policy, (b) changes in curriculum, (c) changes in disciplinary procedures, and (d) forms of student dissent.

The study sample consisted of 1,220 randomly selected educators from 97 public high schools in the states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. Three mailings of the questionnaire resulted in a return of 939 responses (693 teachers, 145 counselors, and 101 principals), an overall return of 77 percent. There is some reason to believe that the attitudes of the nonrespondents were somewhat more traditional and less accepting than the attitudes of those who did respond, if we can generalize from the rather hostile, negative comments jotted by nonrespondents on returned but uncompleted questionnaires.

The educators in the study were asked to indicate, along a 5-point Likert-type rating scale, how desirable or undesirable each item was. The results are summarized in Table 1 (p. 36), which presents the desirability-undesirability of selected items in descending rank order, according to the item's average rating.

A majority (51 percent or more) of teachers accepted 17 of the 40 questionnaire items; a majority of counselors accepted 14 of the 40 items; and a majority of principals accepted 12 of the 40 items. However, on only 9 items (those ranked 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 13, and 18) did a majority of all three responding groups agree that a change would be highly or moderately desirable. Three of these items dealt with "due process of law" as it applies to the secondary school (a "convicted" student's right to a hearing, right to counsel, and right to an appeal). Two of these items dealt with increased student involvement in the governance of the school (establishing a student-faculty discipline committee and granting the student council shared power with the faculty-administrative council). The other four of these majority-accepted items (freedom to express personal views in class, the institution of mental hygiene courses, the institution of black culture courses, and political activism by students) are all rather innocuous in the context of the present study; in short, they represent areas that should have been accepted by the schools all along rather than becoming focal issues in 1970.

It appears that, of the 40 questionnaire items, the 9 mentioned above stand the best chance of being accepted now or sometime in the near future by educators participating in the study. The remainder of the items appear to have much less of a chance, or no chance at all, of being accepted now or in the foreseeable future.

Since in most schools the principal holds the real power, it is interesting to see on what items principals disagree significantly with counselors and/or teachers. (Significant disagreement is defined in this case as a difference of 10 or more percentage points under the column headed "Highly or moderately *undesirable*.") Sixteen items were found to be areas of potential disagreement among the principals and the counselors and/or teachers, with 13 of the 16 items falling

TABLE 1

Educators' Preferences Toward Change and Dissent: Selected Items

Rank Order	Item	Group	Percent		
			Highly or Moderately Desirable	Neutral or Undecided	Highly or Moderately Undesirable
3	Establishment of student-faculty discipline committee	Counselors	83	8	9
		Teachers	84	7	9
		* Principals	65	13	22
4	Granting student accused of a serious rule infraction the right to a hearing	Counselors	81	10	9
		Teachers	78	8	14
		* Principals	71	7	22
7	Peaceful demonstrations, protests	Counselors	69	12	19
		Teachers	64	12	24
		* Principals	43	14	43
9	Draft counseling by guidance counselors	Counselors	48	20	32
		Teachers	59	18	23
		* Principals	46	16	38
12	Free or open dress code	Counselors	62	10	28
		Teachers	58	9	33
		* Principals	49	13	38
16	Institution of "pass-fail" grading system	Counselors	48	20	32
		Teachers	54	14	32
		Principals	54	12	34
17	Appointing ombudsman to handle student grievances	Counselors	46	26	28
		Teachers	48	27	25
		* Principals	40	20	40
20	Banning police interrogations of students within the school	Counselors	48	25	27
		* Teachers	39	24	37
		* Principals	41	16	43
23	Abolishing after-school detention hall system	Counselors	37	21	42
		Teachers	38	12	50
		Principals	40	12	48
27	Allowing students to choose their own teachers	Counselors	27	14	59
		Teachers	29	17	54
		* Principals	19	6	75
29	Abolishing compulsory class attendance	Counselors	25	10	65
		Teachers	26	9	65
		* Principals	12	7	81
32	Discontinuing school suspensions for students	Counselors	22	12	66
		* Teachers	13	9	78
		* Principals	7	11	82
34	Establishment of SDS chapter	Counselors	4	10	86
		Teachers	6	11	83
		* Principals	1	2	97

Note.—The complete table of 40 items is available from the senior author on request.
* Indicates a difference of 10 points or more in the Highly or Moderately Undesirable column.

under the broad areas of school policy and disciplinary procedures, areas over which the principals held most immediate jurisdiction. It appears from the figures that the principal is less accepting of change in the school structure than are counselors and teachers; and since he holds the trump cards, it will be exceedingly difficult for those who desire to institute and implement change to do so in areas where the principal does not deem it desirable.

It was also found that the educators' age and sex had a slight bearing on their attitudes toward change and dissent. Females and younger educators (those from 20 to 29) were generally more accepting in their attitudes than were males and middle- and older-aged educators. Ironically, neither of these two more accepting groups hold very much power in the current high school structure (women's liberation notwithstanding), thus again pointing to the unalterable fact that change in the high schools will probably be a very slow, painstaking process.

DISCUSSION

If, as so many professional educators state, one of the most important missions of the school is to facilitate change, then—at least on the basis of this study's findings—there have to be grave doubts whether high school faculties, especially principals, possess the appropriate attitudes to allow meaningful and legitimate change to take place.

During the past decade change has become almost the rule rather than the exception; yet most educational institutions have proven to be agonizingly slow in keeping up with the times, let alone forging ahead of them. High school educators could well afford listening to and seriously considering some of the requests of the students in their charge and, in so doing, allow those professionals among their ranks—especially those who seem to be most attuned to students and their

very real concerns—to assist young people in seeking and implementing change that is reasonable and within limits. At the present time this does not appear to be happening in very many high schools, with the result that many students, overanxious for change and frustrated by the lack of it, take matters into their own hands and bring about the revolution and dissent that have rent so many of our educational institutions these past few years.

All in all, it is not a very optimistic scene. Students are crying for meaningful change in the school, the institution that most directly affects their adolescent lives. But the majority of the professional faculty that staff that institution, at least in this study's sample, are resistant to change and almost totally intolerant of dissent. Those few staff members who are sympathetic to the students and their concerns happen to be those who do not possess any real power to effect change. And so, unfortunately, the prospects for change remain dim.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

Counselors must certainly shoulder some of the blame for the stagnancy of thought and action that has prevailed throughout our secondary schools. As agents of change, counselors have probably been no more effective or ineffective than the rest of the schools' faculties, but in light of what we have witnessed occurring in the schools, this is a damning indictment indeed.

All too often counselors meld readily into the establishment, with the result that they are perceived by many students as being maintainers of the status quo, as ineffectual, and as hypocrites. The counselor who hopes to subscribe to the goals of his professional organizations must be something more than just a schedule-maker or schedule-fixer, a glorified clerk, an agent of the colleges, or a quasi-administrator. He must be a *coun-*

seling counselor, willing and able to work with individuals and groups to facilitate their healthy development. He must strive to shed his cloak of security consciousness and become more willing to take risks when necessary.

He might try, for example, to do something about the communication gap that typifies so many of today's high schools by getting students, faculty, and administrators together in weekly rap sessions designed to facilitate understanding among the various constituencies of the school. If there exists a problem, such as vandalism or school property, disrespect for the other person's point of view, or lack of school spirit, it would then be possible to communicate this concern to the "other guy" rather than shrugging the shoulders and taking the nothing-can-be-done-about-it-so-why-try attitude. Or the counselor could become more than just an office counselor by making himself more visible and attentive to students and faculty through mingling with them in their "territories"—the hallways, the cafeteria, the faculty room, and even classrooms—to let them know that he does care about and is involved in what is happening outside his own cozy office.

Most important, perhaps, the counselor needs to become a sensor of sore spots so that serious difficulties and tensions between the institution and the individual can be alleviated or, better yet, averted. This, of course, implies that the counselor must be willing to stand up to the oppressor, whether the oppressor is the school's principal, a teacher, one or more of the student body, or the community at large. If a counselor really does care, he ought to be able to do much more than just throw up his hands and say, "Well, that's the way it's always been done around here."

The profession desperately needs counselors who are their own men (and women)—counselors who are capable of standing up for what they believe is right and capable of attempting to change what they feel is wrong in the school and in the society. This is not to suggest that counselors should seek to change all that is old and tradition-based or should seek to add something new just because it is new; rather they should seek to change anything that is wrong or bad—despite its oldness or newness.

Jane Howard, author of *Please Touch*, commented (in a paraphrase of Abraham Maslow), "Reforming a school system is like melting a glacier. To strive to melt glaciers is to ask for trouble [p. 157]." Let us hope that at least some counselors are willing to tackle the glaciers.

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Manpower trends: counseling or political solutions?

CHARLES C. HEALY

[Editor's Note: It is suggested that this article and the following one, by the same author, be read in conjunction with one another, as the two make related comments.]

A review of manpower trends and political developments reveals that governmental decisions threaten to reduce job and training opportunities. Career counselors must be prepared to help clients cope with reduced opportunities. In this article the author describes several alternatives for helping clients in this situation. He maintains that political action by APGA should be one of the alternatives—perhaps the most appropriate one—if APGA is to continue its established tradition of supporting social development.

PSYCHOLOGISTS, educators, scientists, and other professionals have been called upon more and more during the 1960's to become active in our political arenas. Civil rights, Vietnam, ecology, and more recently, women's liberation, have been issues prompting advocates of politicization to question the beliefs and ethics of any profession or science operating without attending to such major concerns.

The profession of career counseling has had its politicization advocates and has done its share of soul-searching, for obviously its members are concerned with human and national rights, control of aggression, and maintenance of a non-lethal environment. But APGA has not yet unfurled a political banner because the issues have not been squarely or wholly within the domain of counseling. The implications of recent political decisions for manpower projections, however, have suggested that there are needs for politicization that stem from issues directly relevant to the profession of career counseling. The issues to be discussed have implications for the general public as well, but they fall squarely within the trust and domain of our profession.

LABOR FORCE TRENDS

In an informative book describing directions for guidance, Wolfbein (1968) presents labor force trends and U.S. Manpower Administration projections that are alarming when viewed in terms of the implications of several recent political decisions. These political decisions will prevent the U.S. from achieving its goal of full employment during the 1970's. This article explains why under present trends full employment will not be achieved; it describes ways by which career counselors can help their clients cope with the decrease in job and training opportunities; and it asks whether career counselors should not adopt a political role in order to prevent such reductions.

Demand for Services

Wolfbein noted that our economy must create 15 million new jobs during the period of 1965–1975 in order to accommodate the influx of new workers. (The

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figure of 15 million is probably now too small, since women have increased their labor force participation beyond the 1965 estimates.) The Manpower Administration's predictions indicate that new jobs must be developed in the service sector of the economy, since the goods-producing sector is automating so quickly that it will require little manpower growth compared to its substantially increased output. This is not news to a counselor, since he has been informed that service worker positions will grow, and he has been encouraging more of his clients to pursue such careers.

Increases in service-sector jobs, however, imply that there will be an increased demand for such services and that those with the demand will have the money to purchase the services. Table 1 lists the service-sector jobs that the Manpower Administration advises must be developed for full employment; the table demonstrates that the demand for them

must come primarily from individuals and government, not from large corporations.

Contrast this information with recent political failures in financing education, recreational and health programs, revenue sharing, and family assistance services. Recent Medicaid and family assistance programs of the Nixon administration are steps in the appropriate direction, but the American Medical Association's political opposition to Medicaid has been very strong, and various—often diametrically opposed—political forces are blocking the family assistance program. Thus there are few mechanisms operating to channel increases in the money supply to the individual and to local governments so that they can purchase services. On the other hand, the individual's funds continue to be diverted into corporations by such devices as import quotas (oil, steel, textiles, etc.), subsidization of the aerospace and transportation industries (sharing Lockheed's $400,000,000 loss, underwriting Penn-Central bonds, etc.), and increased corporate tax credits.

Such assistance to corporations has increased jobs in the past. Today, however, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (1970) projections of job growth indicate that increased capitalization will reduce the number of jobs per unit of output. Yet the federal government is moving to accelerate capitalization of large corporations by tax write-offs and loan guarantees while hesitating to increase the funds that cities and states have for services. And so New York City, Los Angeles, New York State, California, and many other cities and states are laying off workers rather than hiring those who are being displaced by automation.

Training Needs

Wolfbein also pointed out that the age and experience composition of the labor force would change drastically during the decade 1965–1975. In 1975 there will

TABLE 1

Projected Changes in Industry Divisions for Full Employment in 1975

Industry	Number Change	Percentage Change
Agriculture	−840,000	−18
Goods-producing (Total)	2,650,000	+12
Mining	−12,000	−2
Contract construction	1,000,400	+32
Manufacturing	1,658,000	+9
Service-producing (Total)	12,557,000	+32
Transportation	403,000	+16
Communication	139,000	+16
Electric, gas, sanitary	2,000	0
Wholesale/retail trade	3,399,000	+27
Finance/insurance and real estate	702,000	+23
Service/miscellaneous	3,858,000	+43
Federal government	367,000	+15
State and local government	3,686,000	+48

Note.—This table consists of extracts from a table in U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (1970, p. 302).

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be 34 percent more workers in the 14 to 24 age bracket and 41 percent more in the 25 to 34 age bracket than there were in 1965. This large influx of new workers will impose heavy training demands on the labor force. These demands will be particularly difficult to meet because the age group that has traditionally provided the leadership, training, and continuity will experience a decline in actual numbers as well as in relative representation in the labor force.

This change in the composition of the labor force, coupled with the facts that automation is modifying or eliminating two million jobs annually and that the skill requirements for jobs are increasing, indicates that there is a need to increase formal job training in all areas of employment, but especially in those areas in which increases in employment will be greatest.

Wolfbein assumed that judicious, accelerated programs of training would be forthcoming. Until 1970 his assumptions were justified. The federal and state governments had substantially increased training opportunities, although the Manpower Administration indicated that much remained to be done. But in 1970 and 1971 fiscal problems and a growing resistance to property taxation prevented state and local governments from continuing the expansion of state and community colleges, and although the federal government increased civilian training opportunities by 4 percent in 1970 and 1971, it sharply reduced training opportunities in the armed forces. Consequently, the expansion of training and retraining opportunities has almost stopped.

Failure to increase training opportunities can lead to one of two consequences. Either there will be many skilled jobs vacant and many more unskilled, unemployed persons, or there will be many workers performing below par because of insufficient training and many not working because of the lack of jobs. (Re-

gardless of the availability of training, high unemployment can only be prevented by increasing service-sector jobs, which requires increasing the public's and local governments' capacities to purchase such services.)

Minorities

Another projection with frightening implications for our profession in terms of the present political climate is that the number of nonwhites entering the job market has increased by 20 percent. And thus far little progress has been made in opening up job opportunities below the baccalaureate level for minority groups. Halting the expansion of sub-baccalaureate programs will be particularly severe on this group. Since most nonwhites now complete from 10 to 14 years of school, and since discrimination limits their access to apprenticeships and other nonpublic training opportunities, many nonwhites depend on the federal training programs and the junior colleges (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1971). These programs, however, are not expanding sufficiently to meet the needs of nonwhites.

Unless opportunities for training and jobs are opened, minority youth will more frequently turn away from society. The projections are clear. If there are to be acceptable career opportunities toward which to guide minorities, the counseling profession will either have to seek a reversal of the political decisions that have reduced opportunities or develop new methods for helping minorities to increase their use of existing opportunities. Otherwise, a career counselor may not be able to suggest to his minority clients alternatives to Black-Panther-type organizations.

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

The above analyses reveal the effects of political decisions. They do not prescribe solutions. Since political decisions

are involved, a political response should be considered as a possible solution. A political reaction by APGA, however, must be carefully weighed and planned. There are other actions that career counselors might take as alternate, interim, or additional solutions. The remainder of this article describes several such solutions and discusses the possible adoption of a political role by professional counselors.

Job Shortages

If there are fewer jobs, job seekers can increase their opportunities by being prepared to enter more than one occupation and being willing to work in different locations, even outside the U.S., for several years. (The Human Resources Development Department has developed the capability, through the use of computers, of providing information about available jobs throughout the U.S. and in some foreign countries. This will help the flexible job seeker.) A counselor can help his client both in planning a training program that will develop more than one skill and in remaining flexible about acceptable job locations. Furthermore, the counselor can coordinate with directors of training programs and educators so that programs are structured to enable a trainee to prepare for more than a single occupation. In addition, the counselor can encourage employers to reexamine job-entry requirements so that the nonessential requirements are dropped.

Limited Training Opportunities

If there is less government funding for training, counselors can help develop alternate training opportunities and increase the efficiency of existing programs. Since a student in a cooperative education program costs the school less than a student in a full-time vocational program (Evans, 1971), expanding such programs will provide more training opportunities without increasing costs. A counselor can assist in expanding cooperative education enrollments by advising clients about such programs and participating in planning for the expansion of cooperative education programs.

Another source of increased training opportunities is on-the-job training (OJT). The counselor can work with employers and employer groups, such as the National Alliance of Businessmen, which is already active in guidance, in expanding such opportunities. He can also help to make existing OJT programs more efficient by assisting those of his clients who begin such programs to develop the job attitudes necessary to hold a job. Studies have shown that many youths lose their first jobs because they have not developed acceptable work attitudes (Amos, 1964; Cook & Lanham, 1966).

Minority Needs

The career counselor can help increase the labor force participation of minority clients in several ways. He can actively seek placements for minorities and prepare the minority client to qualify for placement by teaching him test-taking and interviewing skills (Seiler, 1971). The counselor can continue counseling while his client is adjusting to the training program or job; Hoffnung and Mills (1970), for example, found that group counseling improved the job adjustment and performance of disadvantaged youth in an OJT program. In addition, the counselor might work with an employer in helping him facilitate the acceptance of a minority worker. And as a professional organization, APGA can teach others that minority members are productive by encouraging the recruitment and training of minority members to be counselors and guidance paraprofessionals.

Political Role

Some will contend that a political role is inappropriate for the career counseling profession. They will argue that his-

torically the counselor has promoted an individual's growth by facilitating his entry into and use of the system, a process most successfully accomplished by eschewing political activity and so avoiding the deleterious effects of factionalism. Moreover, few counselors are trained in politics, and therefore political action cannot be considered a professional tool. In addition, many counselors are civil servants or educators and are therefore bound by the stringent restrictions on political activity that usually govern a public employee's trust. Thus, some counselors would argue that political action should not be considered as long as there are other alternatives.

Others will recognize that the existence and vitality of the counseling profession stem from its commitment to social reform and progress. Counselors have indeed supported the American system, not because they wished to be part of the establishment but because they realized that our system was being developed by socially conscious persons who put human and national goals above their allegiance to an industry, union, or region and who were able to balance partisan interests. They will maintain that counselors have in the past prevented the erection of obstacles to human development and taught clients how to overcome such obstacles, asserting that counselors must continue doing so.

Today, however, the complexity of our system makes it difficult for our national leaders to balance competing interests and judge what is humane and best for our country's continued evolution. The tremendous expense and energy required for communicating with the public has significantly increased the influence of political lobbies, some of which are now threatening the implementation of manpower programs for a fully employed, competent labor force. Professional or-

ganizations like APGA must therefore recognize their responsibility and assume the political role of informing the public and its leaders about matters from the professional domain that will be influenced by political decisions. From such a perspective, the political role, although not the only alternative, may be the most appropriate one for APGA.

The thought of political activity by career counselors may be disquieting, particularly today, when the benefits of counseling are being reexamined and found wanting. School boards and social agencies are trimming counseling staffs, and counselors are understandably anxious. Assumption of a political role at such a time is surely risky. But does not the historical integrity of guidance obligate APGA to assume such a role?

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GENESIS

You sit before me,
Slumped in your chair,
Eyes searching out threads in the carpet.
Voice lost somewhere in the boundaries of fear.

I know that for this moment
I cannot touch you;
I cannot share your pain.

In this patterned silence,
Where the edge of your reality meets mine,
There is time.
Time to shrink into your pain like a backward growing plant
Time to begin again
To let the seeds of self grow into the person you would like to be.

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A political action role for APGA

CHARLES C. HEALY

APGA needs to consider what its appropriate political role will be. In this article the author suggests that APGA adopt the role of declaring its professional position when professional concerns will be influenced by political decisions. The mechanism he describes for implementing such a role allows each member of APGA to participate in the political actions of the organization.

[Editor's Note: It is suggested that this article and the preceding one, by the same author, be read in conjunction with one another, as the two make related comments.]

MORE AND MORE persons are calling for APGA to take political action. Lawton (1971) and Stiller (1972) have argued that APGA needs to develop the capacity to address political issues that relate to professional concerns. Garry Walz (1971), Past-President of APGA, reported plans to change the Federal Relations Committee so that it would be more responsive to pending legislation and more influential in developing new legislation. And in their review of the need for political action, Whiteley and Sprandel (1972) pointed out, during the 1971 convention in Atlantic City, that the APGA Senate has already acted politically in its attempt to fight discrimination in that city. Due to questions about the effectiveness and legitimacy of such Senate action, Whiteley and Sprandel urged APGA to deliberate about the implementation of a political role, and they offered two possibilities for implementing such a role.

There is, however, an alternate mechanism, one based on direct member participation, that could be adopted now without endangering APGA's tax-exempt status.

IMPLEMENTING A POLITICAL ROLE

If APGA is to accept a political role, it must select one that will be effective and can be implemented. Since APGA is a national organization of a relatively small number of persons, its ability to influence national policy through the voting power of its members is negligible. Influencing such policy through those served is also unrealistic; most of APGA's clients are not eligible voters, and the schools and agencies in which guidance is provided quite properly prohibit political indoctrination. However, APGA could profoundly influence professionally relevant political issues if its membership collectively addressed such issues. APGA is recognized for its professional expertise, and the public and its leaders would listen when APGA spoke as a profession.

Although some may feel that this kind of action doesn't go far enough, it would be difficult for a professional organization like APGA to do more than publicize its position and lobby for legislation; greater political activity requires political skill, time, and money. APGA members are generally not trained or experienced in politics; their professional duties leave them little time for political activity; and their modest salaries do not allow them to make large political contribu-

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tions. Moreover, their positions frequently limit the kinds of fund raising in which they may engage. Greater political involvement may be necessary and desirable, but publicizing APGA's professional position and lobbying for it seem suitable as first steps into the political arena. Indeed, Brayfield (1970) concluded that a similar role was most appropriate for the American Psychological Association.

In order to implement such a role, APGA needs to organize itself so that it can present its collective professional opinions on political issues. To speak as a profession requires a mechanism that will elicit membership opinion and present such opinion to the public and its leaders. Currently APGA lacks such a mechanism. Although it has a Federal Relations Committee to advise Congress and federal agencies about guidance-related issues, APGA depends on individuals to initiate contact with government and inform the public about such issues. Unfortunately, however, professionals speaking as individuals often are not heard or heeded. Individuals can be easily dismissed as minorities, and an individual frequently lacks the public relations skills and resources to package his message.

A METHOD OF
PROFESSIONAL POLITICAL EXPRESSION

One possible method of collecting and disseminating professional positions on political issues would consist of a screening committee, ad hoc committees, and membership voting. The screening committee, which could be part of a reorganized Federal Relations Committee, would be empowered to appoint ad hoc committees and direct voting on selected political position statements. Every month the committee would review member requests for APGA position statements on political issues. Relevant requests would be referred to an ad hoc committee of experts; other requests would be retired. The ad hoc committee would examine and develop the implications of the issue and make its recommendations to the screening committee. The screening committee would then review the report and either direct voting or retire the proposal. (An inexpensive method of voting would be via the *Guidepost*.) When voting was indicated, members would receive a ballot and the ad hoc committee's report.

Whenever a proposal was endorsed by a substantial majority of voting members, the screening committee would present the APGA statement to the news media and key national leaders. The ad hoc committee's report would also help local APGA groups to clarify the profession's position in their communities.

Such a mechanism has several advantages. It would allow APGA to present its collective views on professionally relevant political issues, and it would enable each member to participate in the process—a feature which, as Stiller (1972) has pointed out, is vital for the continuation of APGA. Such member participation would also strengthen any APGA declaration, for its representativeness could not be challenged. Another major advantage is that the mechanism defines a political role that can be implemented immediately and without threat to APGA's tax-exempt status.

The mechanism also has some limitations. It will not work if there are a large number of political positions to be considered or if most APGA members do not vote. Further, committee actions and voting require time. All of this would restrict the kinds of issues to which APGA would be able to respond, and the entire plan may turn out to be not viable. However, since the mechanism can be implemented now without major changes in organization, APGA could determine its usefulness by trying it. The political experience from such a trial would help APGA decide whether to broaden the scope of its political role or retain or modify the mechanism.

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FREE

Free to be, to be me,
Not you, not like, not them.
Free to know, to be known,
Without facade, without demand.
Free to hear, to be heard,
Not to gainsay, not to demean.
Free to have, to behave,
To seek, to search, to find.
Free to love, to be loved,
To touch, to taste, to feel.
Free to be, to become,
To think, to trust, to do.
Free to accept, to be accepted,
Because you are, because I am.

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In the Field

*Reports of
programs, practices, or
techniques*

Ethics in Practice: One Woman's Solutions

JOAN HOPF

I have four questions that act as guidelines for the way I behave toward the student who consults me. What do I encourage or permit him to reveal to me? How do I respond and what do I reveal to him? What information do I accept about him from others? What information do I make available to others about him? I cannot answer these questions in absolute terms; I can only define the direction I try to take and the procedures I use to keep myself headed in that direction.

As Director of Career Planning Services at Manhattanville College, I am responsible for four things: (a) helping students and alumni explore and plan careers, (b) helping them locate jobs, (c) maintaining and sending out files of references for alumni, and (d) administering a program in which the college employs students on campus. I can help with these matters, but only within the limits of my competence and the time available. Though I have in the past worked as a counselor in the areas of personal, social, and academic problems, these areas are not now my primary responsibility. And because the time available for my work, always limited, is sharply curtailed by the budget and staff cuts forced on us by the current crunch, I must focus sharply on what I am supposed to be doing and what, hopefully, I can do best in order to give students as much service as possible. Fortunately the college has a highly professional counseling service as well as a strong system for academic advising, and the size of the student body—under 2,000, including part-time and graduate students—makes faculty-student contacts relatively easy.

My decisions about how I relate to students are strongly affected by our equality. The students I talk with are interesting and intelligent. If any of them are neurotic, they are normally neurotic—just like me. All of them can make their own decisions and develop their own plans, and every one of them can contribute facts I do not know and insights I have not considered. I can usually contribute a wider range of information about and approaches to career development, suggesting ways students and alumni can learn about themselves and explore the possibilities available based on their own interests, needs, and abilities.

What Do I Encourage or Permit the Student To Reveal?

Information directly related to matters for which I have responsibility and with which I can help him. How do I keep the student out of areas not directly related to these matters? I actively and purposefully direct our conversation by choosing

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what I respond to and what I respond with and by using physical factors—setting, tone, and time—to show the student what I expect our conversation to be like, thereby guiding his response.

If Roger tells me that his mother does not want him to work in the city, I will not ask him whether his mother fears the city or wants to keep him at home, unless he has tried before to let me know that his relationship with his mother may affect his plans. I will ask him if he wants to work in the city, for this is clearly and directly related to my helping him with his plans. If he says he wants to but thinks it will be hard to get settled there, I may supply information about the way another student located an apartment. If he rejects this suggestion out of hand, I will drop the matter.

I often choose a nonprivate setting for our conversations, frequently talking with students in a group and sometimes talking with an individual in the Career Planning Library, where others are working. When I do use a separate room for an individual interview, I leave the door open, for I do not expect the conversation to be personal or emotional. If I have reason to expect that we will be interrupted, I shut the door, explaining why I am doing so; and if we suffer an interruption, I shut the door, again explaining the reason. Of course, if a student shows me that he needs privacy, I shut the door without comment.

The tone of my side of the conversation is vigorous, active, and purposeful. I set this tone by my posture, voice, and choice of words. I lean forward and move about a good deal. I swing around at the desk so that we are looking at a job description together; I pull a directory off the shelf and we look at it together. I rarely wait any appreciable length of time for a response from a student; I do not use the probing "uh-huh."

I am experimenting with short periods of time—half-hour interviews and 10- to 15-minute conversations. This experimentation grew out of the need to serve as many students as possible with a decimated staff. These short sessions are proving to be long enough to get each student started in his explorations and provide him with suggestions for things to do; after that we will talk again. Both of us are forced to focus on the matter at hand in order to accomplish as much as possible.

Looking over my shoulder, I realize that when I was engaged in personal, social, and academic counseling, I also directed the student's response, using the same factors (setting, tone, time) to achieve very different results. I set up individual, closed-door interviews of the traditional 50 minutes; I leaned back a good deal; I responded to emotional overtones and suggestions; and I often resorted to that "uh-huh." In both kinds of counseling, I encourage students to consider talking with someone else about problems outside my charge and competence. Formerly this outside person might have been someone in a placement or vocational service; now it may be someone in the counseling service.

How Do I Respond and What Do I Reveal to Him?

My goal is to respond as honestly as possible to the student and what he says and to tell him my reactions and my reasons for them. In addition, I make as much information available to him as possible.

Who among us knows how honestly he responds to the personality of another or to what he says? In an attempt to stay honest, I shake myself from time to time and stand aside to look at my reaction and the assumptions and reasoning behind it.

How I present my response depends on my assessment of the student's strength and of our relationship. I may make a strong, clear statement to a student who is strong, who sees me as friendly and sees

our relationship as one of sharing. He will be able to use the statement, either accepting or rejecting it, saying so and giving his reasons; this will reinforce his understanding that he is at least my equal. I cannot make the same kind of statement to an uncertain student, for he may receive it as an attack, as evidence that I am hostile and that I agree with his assessment of himself as weak and worth little. I will try to share my reaction with this student, but I must proceed more cautiously.

Susan and Lucille are two young women considering work with preschool children. Susan seems interested in young children more for intellectual reasons than from a desire to be with them and work with them. She seems sturdy and our relationship seems friendly, so I may ask her if her interest is more intellectual than emotional, requesting her reaction to the suggestion of becoming involved in research concerning young children rather than working directly with them. If I am right in my assessment that she is strong and that she sees me as friendly, Susan will find these ideas interesting; she will think about them and give me her reactions.

Lucille, who is also interested in working with young children for what seem to be intellectual reasons, seems to be rigid, tense, and hostile; and our relationship is uneasy. My questions about her goal concern her rigidity and hostility as well as the intellectual nature of her interest. They are crucially important questions, but I must take care to protect her. I may draw attention to her analytical approach as something that might be unusually valuable in research, later asking if she thinks her analytical approach might cause her some difficulty in working with parents. I may bring in experience, readings, or authorities outside ourselves that we can look at together; for example, I may ask for her evaluation of a day care center she has visited.

The availability of time is an important factor in presenting my response, at the point of our conversation and later as well. Will there be time for the student to let me know how he interprets my response to him? If he does not at that time give me his reaction, will there be time for us to talk again? The availability of time is also important in relation to factual information, for I need time to be sure that the facts and educated guesses I have given are understood and time to correct my presentation if necessary.

My goal is to give students as much information as possible so that they can draw their own conclusions and determine their own actions. I try to give every student access to all the information I have, whether he chooses to talk with me or not, and I want him to be able to get at this information directly, without its being filtered through my bias, my memory, and my decisions about what information might be useful to him. To accomplish this I have designed our Career Planning Library for self-directed use. Our whole collection of library material is on open shelves or in open files; this includes full information about all job listings, names of people to whom the student should write if he wishes to inquire about openings in a specific firm or agency, and copies of the books and articles on which I base my own professional judgments.

What Information About Students and Alumni Do I Accept from Others?

Preferably nothing they may not be shown or told of, unless they themselves ask me to accept material in a completely confidential form. Written information is, of course, much easier to handle than that picked up in conversations. We receive two kinds of written references. The first are general references that are filed until the time when they may be needed to support job ap-

plications, and these are controlled according to carefully determined administrative decisions. We have reviewed and revised our policies and procedures concerning these files, and we now give students or alumni a choice of asking us to keep references that they may read or references that may not be revealed to them. We also suggest the possibility of their keeping their own files of references. Since this policy decision was made, the only written material we have that may not be read by the student or alumnus consists of those references he chooses not to be able to read. (A description of our review procedures, "Those Files of Confidential References—One Solution," appears in the April–May 1972 issue of the *Journal of College Placement*.)

We must keep these references for any student or alumnus who asks us to, but I am not sure that I must read them in order to help him locate a job or plan a career; and I am currently not reading them. Not reading them keeps me from being influenced by someone else's assessment, so each individual has a fresh and equal start when he talks with me. I am not entirely satisfied with this, but I prefer it to talking with the individual about his hopes and fears for the future after I have read references I cannot discuss with him.

The other kind of written references we receive concerns college jobs (jobs on campus) that students have had. These files must be open to the student, and the form we have developed informs the person who is about to write one: "This reference may be read by the student; his next job assignment will be based on your recommendation, and knowledge of your assessment will help him learn more from his work experience." We also show the student a copy of the form when he applies for a college job so he will know how his work will be measured.

Information gained in conversations about students is more difficult to deal with, whether it concerns academic achievement, work in a college job, academic potential, or career potential. If the comment is adversely judgmental, to the effect, for example, that the student has been uncooperative or is incapable of graduate study, I always ask my informant if he has talked with the student about the matter and urge him to do so or let me do so.

Usually these verbal reports are factual and rather routine, so I can assume that the person who is talking with me has talked with the student about the matter and expects me to do so too. But I try to say something that will check out my assumption, such as, "Let me jot that down so I will remember to talk with Paul about it." And I do write it down. If the report concerns a college job, I write it on the student's job record card, which he will not only see but will handle the next time he talks with me about his work. If it concerns his job hunt or career plans, I record it on the card I use to keep track of his job and career interests and his progress. This card too he will see and handle the next time he talks with me. I make no other record of these conversations.

Occasionally I cannot persuade my informant to talk with the student or let me talk with him about the matters we discuss. I do not record that information; I try to forget it. Failing that, I try to keep it from influencing my actions or my assessment of the student. But I have such grave questions about these confidences that I tend to remember them and give the student more than the benefit of my doubts. If I am influenced by them, I am probably influenced in favor of the student.

What Information Do I Make Available to Others About the Student or Alumnus?

Those written references are most easily dealt with. General references kept on file with us are sent to potential employers only in response to a written request

from the person about whom they are written. Those concerning college jobs are never released to outsiders; they are designed for internal use only, and the form we use says so. Nor are they revealed to staff and faculty members not directly concerned with the work of this office, though good points may be used. I may say, for example, that a former job supervisor found the student punctual and dependable.

The student or alumnus knows that we have all these references, and except for the ones he has requested us to keep completely confidential, he has either seen them or may see them if he wishes. In addition, he knows what other records we have. He sees and handles the record cards that bear notes on my contacts with others about him. He also knows what I record about my contacts with him and the things he tells me, for I do this on the same cards, while I am talking with him, writing on the appropriate card while he watches, muttering as I write, and putting question marks at the end of my mutters. "Let's see . . . you would like any college job except in the library?" or "You want to consider work with young children, probably not in the classroom? I have suggested that you look at social work, occupational therapy, and teaching—especially preschool or special ed.—and you plan to observe in a hospital, a public school, and a private preschool program, preferably American Montessori?"

There is always the possibility that any kind of written record may become available to someone other than the person who wrote it and the person whom it describes. This is one reason I make these record cards relatively public and make it clear to the student that they are so. They are kept in an open file; the individual pulls his out when he comes in, and after we record our conversation on it, he returns it to the file. The openness of this file prevents our recording private and personal information even if I were

not determined to avoid doing so. If a student has had a dustup with a college job supervisor, the note may say, "Prefers not to work in the infirmary." If an alumna must find a job because her husband has lost his, it is enough to say, "Looking for a job near home; must be good pay."

The meagerness of our notes often causes me personal agony. When someone says, "But I *told* you that," I am embarrassed; my self-image is dented. But I am learning to live with myself, and I prefer to use this system rather than review my private notes before talking with someone and giving the impression that I remember our previous conversation in detail, which is what I used to do.

My office also gathers information about jobs that students hold during the school year and the summer and about jobs held by alumni by asking these people to fill in questionnaires and job reports. One of our goals is to make this information available to other students and alumni, so we ask on all questionnaires and forms if we may do so. If permission is given and copies are needed for cross-filing, we make copies directly from the report whenever possible.

Of course, I have in my mind and heart, gained from contacts with them about all these matters, personal knowledge and assessments of many students. I operate on the basis of this knowledge and these assessments, but I do not usually share them, so I must sort out my information when I talk with someone about a student. Specifically, I must consider whether the discussion about a student is needed for our work with the student. The best mental question I have found for ascertaining this is, "Is this business, or am I gossiping?"

In addition, when time and circumstances permit, I talk about a student only if he is with me or at the other end of the telephone, no matter how innocuous the conversation. If the student is with me but must leave before I can

reach the person I need to talk with, I ask the student if he can come back, explaining that I would prefer him to be with me when I talk about him. If he cannot return, I ask if he is willing for me to go ahead, telling him what I expect to say and the questions I will ask.

When I write a memo about a student, I send him a copy or ask him to read it, unless it concerns other students as well as him, in which case I cannot do so, of course. If a student wants me to write a recommendation for him, I prefer to write one he is permitted to read. And if I must write a completely confidential one, usually for a graduate school, I warn him of any reservations I have.

In Perspective

These fine statements on my ethical practices sound ever so virtuous, not to say pigheaded. All of them should be punctuated frequently with I think, I try, probably, perhaps, usually, and it-seems-to-me. I developed these routines over a number of years, and many are the result of horrible mistakes that forced me to look for some kind of system that would keep me from making the same mistakes in the future. I am sure that at some dark moment in the future I will look back on these fine ideas and discover their flaws. In fact, I hope this article will bring reactions that will help me to do this now.

Rap Rooms in L. A. Schools

STEPHANIE DIAS
MICHAEL E. MAIN

Alienation seems to be the common cry of social critics today, and the schools are often cited as both reflecting and causing this problem. We wonder if the cause is actually a lack of community and if what we are really talking about is the lack of mutual trust and trust in oneself that keeps people alienated from each other and themselves. We contend that people cannot grow in this state of isolation. They need understanding, involvement, and love. Yet if love is mentioned at all in education, it is usually for the purpose of analysis (O'Banion & O'Connell, 1970).

We believe that a sense of community that "encompasses all forms of relationships" and is "characterized by a high degree of personal intimacy" should be established so that man can develop a sense of wholeness with himself and his society (Nisbet, 1966). We believe that this sense of community can be achieved and are suggesting that a highly effective means of doing so is an encounter group based on the existential-humanist ideals of the development of human potential. These groups have been used and proven extremely effective in increasing a person's ability to fulfill his potential and increasing person-to-person communication on a human level (Rogers, 1970). The encounter groups we refer to embrace the goals of

a higher reason, a more human community, and a new and liberated individual . . . a renewed relationship of man to himself, to other men, to society, to nature, and to the land [Reich, 1970, p. 2].

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We are suggesting that, if growth groups can help accomplish this, they belong in schools as well as all other institutions designed to serve the community (Myrick, 1969). These groups can be especially appropriate at the secondary level because of the adolescent's strong desire to be a member of a group and his struggle for independence. It can also relate directly to the adolescent's search for identity, for increased understanding of himself, and for improved social skills (Ohlsen, 1970).

We are suggesting, as a means of bringing such groups into the school system, that school "rap rooms" be used as a vehicle. A "rap room" is usually a classroom that has been refurnished and redecorated with items such as couches, rugs, and posters, all designed to reflect an informal atmosphere. Rap rooms have started to appear in the Los Angeles City junior and senior high schools as places where students can go to relate on a personal level with their peers and their counselors. Hopefully, these places offer a solution to some of the sociopsychological problems that prevent students and therefore the schools from functioning more effectively.

Taft High School

In the San Fernando Valley a rap room was in operation at Taft High School during the spring semester of 1971, the impetus coming from the boys' vice principal, the PTA president, and the student government. A social worker at a local boys' home was asked by the administration to supervise the room, and we, as students in the master's program in Guidance and Counseling at California State University, Northridge, assisted in running the groups. There was no salary involved; this has led to the problem of finding new volunteers each semester and has unfortunately placed the room on a precarious, semester-to-semester basis.

Each lunchtime meeting was estab-lished as an encounter group session; the emphases were on growth and a search for solutions to normal developmental problems. One of the things we decided on was that expression of one's feelings was to be the major means of interaction. At first this idea was quite alien to the students. We used many non-verbal techniques (e.g., breaking through a circle of students holding hands, falling into someone's arms, hitting a pillow to express anger) and kept asking for here-and-now feelings in our attempt to develop awareness among the group members. As time passed, we found that there was less need for our leadership and the use of our techniques.

Even though publicity was almost entirely by word of mouth, there developed a core group of about 25 students surrounded by a changing cast of new or less involved members. Among the core group such a sense of cohesiveness, trust, and caring developed that these students began meeting at each other's homes for social gatherings as well as rap sessions and continued on their own during the summer. It appeared that they had learned some methods of basic encounter and felt that they no longer had to have a leader. This seems to coincide with Gibb's and Gibb's (1968) conclusions on leaderless groups.

Drug abuse, the problem that had prompted the introduction of rap rooms into the Los Angeles schools, was touched on only once or twice. More vital and basic problems were dealt with, problems such as: Who am I? How can I break away from my parents? Why am I so lonely? Am I a worthy person? The emphasis was on normal (but painful) common adolescent developmental problems, including self-identity, peer relationships, family relationships, ineffective behavior, and ability to plan for the future. Although these problems were dealt with on a feeling level, the cognitive approach of seeking new alternatives was often used. As the problems were

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discussed, so were corresponding behavior and attitudes. Thus an attempt was made to deal with the whole person; and awareness, growth, and personal autonomy were set as goals.

Rap rooms in other schools in the Valley have differed considerably from the one at Taft in both philosophy and methods. While Taft has used the encounter group, other schools have used as a model crisis intervention on a drop-in basis. The topics, vocabulary, and depth of discussion have varied from school to school, but it is not clear whether this variation is a reflection of the cultural, socioeconomic, or educational level of the students or the counselors.

Monroe High School

The first rap room to be established in the Valley was at Monroe High School, where the concern at first was the problem of drug abuse. Discussions initiated by the pupil services and attendance (PSA) counselor at Monroe, a VISTA volunteer, an ex-addict, and a Methodist minister were carried on for five months. These discussions resulted in the establishment of a room in the school where students could go for counseling. (The PSA counselor had already been meeting with students during lunch, and he was now merely asking for a designated meeting place.) Although it was originally planned that the ex-addict would work with the students, the decision was finally made to use school personnel only. This experiment, sanctioned by the principal, ran for almost a year before any formal approval was given by the Los Angeles Board of Education. Then, following a presentation made to the Los Angeles Drug Abuse Council of the Los Angeles Board of Education, approval was granted in January 1971.

At first, because of a lack of time and funds, the room was irregularly staffed with volunteer teachers under the supervision of the PSA counselor. After the idea was approved by the board of education, the PSA counselor's workload at other schools was reduced, and he was able to spend several hours a day in the room. A second PSA counselor, a woman, was added to the rap room staff as his co-worker. There has also been regular assistance from graduate counseling students at California State University, Northridge (the junior author was involved in this program). It is felt that a variety of staff will assure all students of finding some person to whom they can relate.

Monroe students have been coming to the room either on their own initiative or at the suggestion of a teacher who may have detected a problem, and the focus of the room has broadened from discussions of drug abuse to discussions on any problems the students may wish to share.

San Fernando High School

The impetus for opening the rap room at San Fernando High School, the second school in the Valley to do so, was more the racial conflict than the drug abuse problem. Because of the severity of the problems in this school, special federal funding was provided for the room.

Two of the goals for this particular room have been (a) providing for feedback through the formation of advisory groups representing students, teachers, and the community and (b) the use of the room as a place of liaison for students and community. The room has had the general support of the administration and the teachers, although some teachers have preferred to keep their students in class. The counselors staffing the room have been very conscious of the possibility of a polarized faculty and have been trying very hard to keep the room from becoming a point of contention. It has been open during the entire school day, and students have been free to request permission to go at any time. The topics discussed in the room have included anger toward the school; narcotics officers

on school grounds; unfair treatment; and resentment toward teachers, authorities, and ethnic groups. This rap room has been a place for catharsis and relief of tension.

The authors visited this room in May 1971. On the day we visited, the room was half-painted a pale blue, and a ladder and painting equipment were in sight. The windowpanes were partially decorated, and students were painting them while we were there, some of them listening to the conversation going on and joining in from time to time. Students who weren't painting were sitting on a couch or on the floor. The counselor was talking, emphasizing the students' feelings about themselves and others and trying to help them develop a realistic awareness of how others saw them. At one point during our visit there was a confrontation between a Chicano boy and a black girl over the use of the term *colored*. The discussion turned to feelings of loyalty to one's own people and then to the fear of revealing too much of one's inner feelings.

Some Arguments Refuted

There have been several doubts raised about rap rooms by parents, teachers, and administrators. For example, it has been suggested that students might misuse the privilege of being released from class, either not going to the rap room after being excused or going there only to get out of class. Generally this fear has proven to be unfounded. The students at Monroe and San Fernando have been asked to sign in at the rap room, thus giving the teacher a means of checking on their attendance. At Monroe especially, habitual visitors to the rap room have been confronted with questions about their motivations for coming.

Other fears were that the freedom established in the rap room would encourage vulgar language, licentious behavior, and use of the room as a place for coming down from drug "highs." The first two have simply not occurred, and the last occurred only rarely—specifically at the beginning of Monroe's operation—and was dealt with as an abuse of the room. In addition, drug counseling was made available.

Another fear was that psychological counseling, especially in encounter groups, would stir up feelings within the student that he could not handle. Even the intense psychological moments encountered at Taft, however, have not substantiated this fear, according to a report written for the administration of Taft High School by P. A. Smith, a survey conducted at Taft at the end of the school year by Smith, and recorded interviews with the Taft students themselves. Smith stated that the rap room had a "constructive focus . . . on contemporary here-and-now problems which students are facing at home or at school with the emphasis on student responsibility for solution of problems."

The survey Smith made during the last week of the Taft semester indicated that of the 21 students who answered the survey, 52 percent came every day and 48 percent came most of the time. In an open-end question asking what the value of the rap room was, the two most frequently mentioned values were "to realize and communicate one's own feelings" and "to better relations between people." Two others mentioned were "to speak freely without fear of being rejected" and "to give hope but not necessarily solve problems." No one felt that the rap room had been abused or had any lasting bad effect on anyone. Student recommendations included having the room open all day and having it more heavily publicized.

Following are excerpts from the recorded interviews of the Taft students.

You don't get a chance to communicate personally or humanly . . . [and] this is the place it can be done.

There's been a fantastic change in the way that

I view things. . . . I've been less critical of people and able to understand myself a lot easier.

After coming here I found that I could let the pressures . . . towards school out by talking to people. . . . I've been able to function in school better. I haven't had the explosive episodes, and I generally feel like a much more stable person.

I left home because things were not going the way that I had wanted them. I guess I blew things out of proportion considerably. . . . Through the help of the rap room and people in it . . . I got it straightened out . . . and I'm now living back at home.

It's a place where I can just talk about my feelings.

I've met people who really cared about me [and] were really being honest with me.

I really feel different now about them [parents]. . . . Just last night I told my dad that I loved him, which is something I haven't done . . . as long as I can remember, and he smiled and . . . that was enough . . . for me . . . and if I have something really heavy on my mind, I know the people in the rap room care about me and they'll listen to me. It's really beautiful just knowing that there's somewhere I can go.

I guess more than anything it's a feeling of unity, a feeling of real togetherness. . . . It's like I feel that a piece of me is in every single one of the other people around me and . . . I have a piece of all of them. . . . It's really the best closeness I've ever known.

I think that the rap room has helped me. It is the first time I have told anyone about myself. I can't talk to my psychologist or to my parents. What helped, I think, is that someone was concerned about me for once, and it wasn't just because they were in my family. . . . I *am* somebody.

Several other schools have become interested in the concept of rap rooms, and the Los Angeles Board of Education has become more aware of the rooms' potentials. Perhaps this is a manifestation of the shift in counseling that Muro and Freeman (1968) refer to when they speak of the trend in the schools toward counseling for self-understanding.

Opposition from Authoritarian Schools

The rap room is a feasible means of bringing growth perspectives into the schools. The goal of developing autonomous individuals, however, could very well prove disruptive to those schools that are highly authoritarian in structure. A basic fear of change and the assumption that chaos would accompany this change have, in fact, caused heavy opposition to rap rooms and encounter groups in these authoritarian schools within the Los Angeles school system— unless the situation has appeared so bleak that new solutions have had to be found. In authoritarian schools with extreme drug problems, severe racial conflicts, and riots, new, "untested" solutions have been tried out of desperation. But what would the potential be if we were to have rap rooms and encounter groups—based on a growth model rather than a remediation model—available to all students?

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Etcetera

Daniel Sinick
George Washington University

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

Occupational Literature: An Annotated Bibliography by Gertrude Forrester. The H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Avenue, Bronx, New York 10452. 1971. 619 pp. $15.

This classic for a quarter of a century, now in its sixth edition, continues to give guidance to those who give guidance. Surveying a vast literature of books and pamphlets, it provides not only annotations about content but also recommendations regarding quality. It thus supplements the triennial NVGA *Bibliography of Current Career Information* and the *Vocational Guidance Quarterly*'s regular section on "Current Career Literature." Oddly, the NVGA *Bibliography* is not "especially recommended," but not every reader would agree with every recommendation. Forrester has at least attempted to see the trees.

Group Procedures: Purposes, Processes, and Outcomes edited by Richard C. Diedrich and H. Allan Dye. Houghton Mifflin Company, 110 Tremont Street, Boston 02107. 1972. 537 pp. $5.95. **Social Group Work: A Helping Process** by Gisela Konopka. Second Edition. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1972. 226 pp. $7.95.

P&G'ers aware of the parallels between group counseling and group work, as between counseling and casework, are better prepared for multiple or single encounters. Whether or not parallel lines ever meet, the common content of these two professions might well be blended in practice. A clearer image is the converging of two streams of divergent origins. The Konopka book, first published in 1963, is part of the social work mainstream. Though rather old-fashioned in format, it covers historical, theoretical, and practical aspects of social work with groups in a variety of settings. The Diedrich-Dye "Selected Readings for the Counselor" includes 40 pieces, also getting at different groups and settings but extending the group concept to sensitivity training, confrontation groups, and other "therapeutic interactions." Since therapy for some is trauma for others, Wrenn in his foreword sagely suggests that, after reading the opening selections, one "go directly to the last section on 'Ethics'."

Predicting Academic Performance in College by Alexander W. Astin. The Free Press, 866 Third Avenue, New York 10022. 1971. 299 pp. $12.95.

Providing "selectivity data for 2,300 American colleges," this compendium presents two major tables for "predicting academic survival and success at individual colleges." One contains name of college, institutional type and control, sex, enrollment, estimated means on three tests (ACT, NMSQT, SAT), and selectivity level ("general academic ability of the entering freshman class"); the second includes selectivity level and "percentile ranks of entering freshman class corresponding to various composite scores on the American College Test." Many shorter tables show, separately for men and women, pertinent expectancy data. Astute Astin has explanatory chapters and appendixes that make the material useful for the dual audience of high school students and guidance counselors. He discusses a vast variety of variables affecting academic performance and expresses scholarly caution regarding estimates, averages, and other pitfalls of prediction.

Social Interaction in Educational Settings edited by Albert H. Yee. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1971. 468 pp. $9.95 hardbound.

This effective focus on inevitable social interaction in any educational locus, though

rather formidable in its two-column format and technical in its content and style, offers much of interest to many P&G'ers. Krumboltz and Thoresen and Thelma Vriend are represented among these previously published pieces, put together here "for courses covering the areas of psychological or sociological foundations of education and social psychology of education." Attention is given to reference groups, peer relations, interpersonal attraction, disadvantaged pupils, attitude development and change, and research methods and problems. Yee contributes a preface, introductions, and readings for the five sections as well as 6 of the 33 readings.

The Retarded Child: Answers to Questions Parents Ask by Arthur A. Attwell and D. Ann Clabby. Western Psychological Services, 12031 Wilshire Boulevard, Los Angeles 90025. 1971. 134 pp. $5.95.

The 231 answers presented through 14 chapters are pertinent not only for parents but for many other helping persons. The easy-to-read question-and-answer format facilitates understanding of numerous nuances regarding retardation's causes and consequences. This compendium's coverage is sufficiently comprehensive and careful to make carping criticism of such points as omission of some undefined terms from the glossary, failure to mention perinatal causes as distinctive from prenatal and postnatal ones, and almost exclusive restriction of the "Vocational Planning" chapter to sheltered workshops. Since the book unavoidably deals with adults as well as children, its title might better have been *The Retarded Person* and its intended audience broader than parents.

Young People and Work by Arthur H. Cain. The John Day Company, Inc., 257 Park Avenue South, New York 10010. 1971. 146 pp. $4.95.

Cain is able, despite his being a psychologist who "also studied religion," to be talky but not preachy. Author of numerous books in a "Young People and . . ." series, he has an earthy style that might irk some but appeal to many of the current turned-on generation. His seven chapters constitute a bit of a mixed bag, with extended discussion of such diverse topics as social-psychological meanings of work and "Jobs—Here and Abroad." The contrast in contents is accompanied by an odd combination of corny clichés and apt aphorisms. Useful for the youthful?

Occupational Psychology, Volume 44, 1970 (Jubilee Volume). National Institute of Industrial Psychology, 14 Welbeck Street, London, W1N 8DR. 1971. 309 pp. $18.60.

This quarterly journal, cutting across industrial psychology and vocational guidance, has been published since January 1922, under two previous titles. To celebrate its semicentennial, significant articles were selected for reprinting here, some accompanied by current comments providing historical perspective, modern views, and future prospects. Among the wide range of topics are satisfactions in work, occupational success, employee attitudes, studying people at work, mental differences, and privacy. Private pleasure will accrue to many P&G'ers from a perusal of this compendium combining nostalgia and "now."

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COUNSELING FILMS

An Introduction to Behavioral Counseling, narrated by John D. Krumboltz. How a behavioral counselor works with the client, parents, and teachers to help the client solve his problems is demonstrated in this film. In the introduction, John D. Krumboltz explains the three main goals of counseling and follows up with reviews of the behavioral counselor's techniques. A portion of an interview between the counselor, Ray E. Hosford and his client, a 14-year-old boy who succumbed to peer pressure and participated in acts of vandalism, illustrates the procedures used to modify maladaptive behavior. The film also demonstrates behavioral problem solving techniques such as reinforcement, social modeling, role playing, and environmental modification. 16mm, color and sound. 26 minutes in length. Rental fee, $20 per day of use; sale price, $285.

A Behavioral Counseling Seminar with John D. Krumboltz. Major topics of behavioral counseling are explored through Krumboltz's responses to questions from graduate students and from guest seminar moderator, John M. Whiteley. Some of the topics explored and questions asked are: counseling goals . . . "How does a behavioral counselor help a client specify his goals?"; the counseling relationship . . . "How important is the relationship between the client and the counselor in behavioral counseling?"; client freedom . . . "How do you perceive the nature of freedom for the client in behavioral counseling?"; methods and applications . . . "What are some of the counseling techniques that a behavioral counselor employs?"; evaluation of counseling . . . "What evidence is there to demonstrate the effectiveness of the various techniques used in behavioral counseling?" 16mm, color and sound. 21 minutes in length. Rental fee, $20 per day of use; sale price, $225.

Adding a Visual Dimension to Counseling. How are visuals used to help counselees resolve conflicts, build relationships, and make better decisions? Practicing counselors, students, and staff of the Department of Counseling and Guidance, University of Wisconsin-Madison demonstrate techniques employing visuals in a variety of counseling situations in this film. 16mm, color and sound. 24 minutes in length. Rental fee, $20 per day of use; sale price, $265.

These three films were produced by Counseling Films, Inc. and are distributed by APGA. Please send your order to the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Film Dept., 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Customers living in Alaska, Arizona, California, Hawaii, Idaho, Nevada, Oregon, Utah and Washington should order films from APGA's west coast distributor, the California Personnel and Guidance Association, Film Dept., 654 East Commonwealth Avenue, Fullerton, California 92631. Please note that payment must accompany all film orders except for those on official, institutional purchase order forms.

Book Reviews

Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

Student Dissent in the Schools by Irving G. Hendrick and Reginald L. Jones. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1971. 400 pp. $4.95.

"There is just too much being published, giving too much attention to these sit-ins, riots and demonstrations!" Perhaps you feel, like so many educators and parents, that the less said about student dissent the better. Maybe so, if what's being said is said only for spectacular effect. On the other hand, consider this offering.

Practitioners in today's schools should enjoy the authors' attempts to bring a balanced perspective to this topic. The who, what, why, and how many are presented, as is a unit on alternatives to student dissent that can be considered. In addition to having a chance to consider the many facets of this problem, you can hear it from all viewpoints. Unique in this book is the opportunity to read articles and excerpts from underground newspapers, school district policy manuals, and student organization manuals, as well as from J. Edgar Hoover. The volume is divided into three major units, each having only a short introductory section by the authors. Following each introduction is a compilation of articles around the unit theme.

The authors contend that it is counselors who hold more of a student's future in their hands than any other professionals, and they

imply that counselors misuse this power for many students. The authors also give a negative appraisal to "guidance conferences" that are held at a crisis point. On the positive side, the authors review a model in which those in the counseling profession can provide an alternative to chaos in the school.

Hendrick and Jones give a counselor the chance to sit back, away from his own situation, to contemplate this perplexing issue. Counselors, as well as all professionals in education, could gain much insight from the book, particularly regarding student perceptions of drugs, student rights, and system change. To appreciate the book, the reader will need to remain open and allow himself not to expect conclusions and answers that are tailor-made for his own situation. Truly educating and helpful.—*Jackie Lamb, Educational Specialist, State of Illinois, Chicago, Illinois.*

Guide to Manpower Training by John Colbert and Marcia Hohn. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1971. 112 pp. $8.95.

For counselors in the inner city, manpower training programs have been increasingly employed as a resource in assisting clients' vocational development. This book, intended as a staff manual for such programs, should be of value to these counselors in providing a frame of reference within which they can evaluate existing programs or develop new ones. The book consists of a description of one operating program, a discussion of the administrative relationship between this program and the citywide anti-poverty agency, and a discussion of the philosophical issues underlying manpower training in general.

Many points useful to counselors working in a wide range of settings are raised in the program description, including the emphasis on staff interdependence and cooperation and the admonition that the counselor working in this sort of program should focus on reality adaptation rather than attempt deep psychotherapy. A provocative set of topics for client group discussion is provided, including such issues as trainees' unwarranted expectations, reactions to supervision and criticism, anxiety about taking a job, accepting work responsibilities, and job-seeking attitudes and behaviors. Topics mentioned

but inadequately discussed are the unmotivated client, methods used to assign clients to a training objective, and those psychometric tests that have proved useful.

The final section of the book points out many of the contradictions in our economic system that place clients and those who help them into a paradoxical situation in promoting adjustment to the world of work. While these issues are couched in terms of preparing the hard-core unemployed for entry into an economy that frequently neither needs nor wants them, most of these points apply equally well to clients of higher socioeconomic status (for example, anyone seeking to become an elementary school teacher or aerospace engineer in today's labor market).

The value of this book as a staff manual—its avowed purpose—is, however, limited by its too-specific focus on one program, its consequent omission of certain topics (for example, case finding, programmed instruction, and training in the use of public transit), and its high price.—*David B. Hershenson, Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago.*

The New Colleges: Toward an Appraisal edited by Paul L. Dressel. Iowa City: The American College Testing Program, 1971. 326 pp. $3.

This anthology contains the writings of several authors who represent new or experimenting schools. Most of their articles are informative, alive, and useful to college personnel. The book apparently evolved from a conference presentation.

Dressel's preface and first chapter are vague, redundant, and biased—pro established programs and con new ones. He feels that innovators avoid criticisms and that new programs especially need to be appraised because they are faddish. The strength of the book is that some of the writers are very good. They reveal their schools well, and they show pioneers' strength in their goals and attitudes. Here's what they say.

Chickering gives a succinct, practical recipe for appraisal—what tests to use and when. McCoy gives a model: Johnston College. Harwood presents an interesting appraisal of Fairhaven College in which he cites the

intangibles of what's happening at a school, for example, the impact of a roommate, what students talk about, whether the doors are locked or not. It's a nitty-gritty relief from $p = .05$.

The University of Michigan's Residential College is discussed by Newcomb and others through a sound statistical design of appraisal. Rohman, a good writer, presents his ideas about Justin Morrill College, the inevitability of change, the need for "transforming questions," "wild-card" curriculums, and new scales to measure how much gets invented, tried, and waded into. He shows the need to "go beyond our maps." Mason tells about Callison College.

Elinendorf discusses New College and raises the question of transfer value. Ring shows the evaluation problems of Santa Cruz. Garfinkel presents an adaptation of the annual report of James Madison College. Litten criticizes all the other writers' presentations but doesn't say much himself. Astin talks about the nature of evaluation, as do Munday and Cole.

But the cleanup batter is Martin, who reveals the real appraisal problem: the "criterion demon." How does one "justify the absence of change"? "The purpose of evaluation should be to stimulate imagination, not simply provide information." Martin knocks down some of the straw men that Dressel builds.

In summary, the wave of accountability currently washing educational institutions makes me advise all higher education people to read the book. They should try to overlook the ACT soft sell, skip Dressel, and, if pushed for time, start with the last chapter and sample their way to the front.—*Ron Lawton, New England College, Henniker, New Hampshire.*

Workshops for the Handicapped in the United States: An Historical and Developmental Perspective by Nathan Nelson. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1971. 466 pp. $16.

Nelson states near the end of his book that "the future of workshops will depend upon the decisions American society makes about the economic welfare of its least successful people." That statement indicates his emphasis throughout the book. Here is a com-

prehensive treatise that includes the historical development of workshops, a description and discussion of present-day facilities, and predictions about the future of workshops. All are considered within the economic, social, and philosophic framework of the American culture.

Workshops have the common aim of helping people through the provision of real work. They have existed for a long time in the United States but have grown rapidly in number since 1950. Nelson predicts the trend will continue. He analyzes the factors in our society that have precipitated the need for workshops, compares the various types of workshops, discusses the functions they serve and the population served. The critics and criticisms of workshops are considered briefly.

The book is well organized, easily read, and presents much factual material clearly and concisely. It should be of interest to anyone concerned with the habilitation or rehabilitation of handicapped people. It should be of particular interest and help to those planning to establish workshop services, to personnel interested in providing such services to clients, to students preparing to work with handicapped people, and to researchers interested in this area. Nelson discusses and documents well the organizational components of workshops, their definition through recent legislative action, and includes a summary of standards for the operation of workshops. This is an exhaustive document about an area of the helping services that before has not been as completely covered.—*Corrine S. Cope, University of Missouri, Columbia.*

Compensation in Psychiatric Disability and Rehabilitation edited by Jack J. Leedy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1971. 348 pp. $15 hardbound.

Some books serve as good references, places to look when you have a question. Leedy's book is an adequate resource for professionals who wish to know more about compensation in psychiatric disability and rehabilitation. Many of the 17 contributors are knowledgeable and do a thorough job of covering topics such as malingering, traumatic factors, secondary gain, and "money attitudes." Some

chapters are primarily factual, such as the first one on economic factors and a later one containing an informative presentation of occupational risk factors. Other worthwhile chapters touch on theoretical issues, questions of making judgments in awarding compensation, and establishing rehabilitation plans.

While the medical model is assumed in most of the writing, Lerner is refreshing in his criticism of some psychiatrists' lack of involvement, the inadequacy of their reports, and the inadequacy of diagnosis. It is interesting that a lawyer is one of the few contributors who stress the need for rehabilitation programs. One chapter describes compensation for Nazi persecution in West Germany, but it does not raise some obvious issues of government responsibility for emotional disorders and international implications.

Many chapters are too brief to say much of anything; others overlap excessively where authors' views are not divergent.

Leedy's book is worth having in an agency or institutional office or a professional training library to be used as a resource in researching financial factors related to psychiatric disorders. I do not, however, find the book worthwhile enough to purchase a personal copy at $15. It does appear to be up to date and, for the most part, sensitive to the current increases in insurance coverage and governmental services to the emotionally disturbed. Of course, this book will be outdated in about five years.—*Charles Vander Kolk, State University of New York at Albany.*

The Development of Human Resources: Education, Psychology, and Social Change by Robert R. Carkhuff. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1971. 512 pp. $7.95.

"During the 21st century all earthlings were trained as Empathy Robots to spew forth Level 5 empathic responses but during the 22nd century communication stopped; their training failed to equip them with anything to say (Galaxy Press, 2471)."

This book purports to say a great deal but in fact says very little. In spite of the author's contention that the book is about wide psychological, educational, and human resources issues, it is actually about empathy and re-

lated communications techniques. There is interesting and helpful information on communications training of teachers, education students, parents, volunteers, and administrators. There are many examples demonstrating the efficacy of the author's training model in a variety of situations. However, the book could give one the impression that techniques alone are the sine qua non of helping relationships.

At its best, the book deals with communications techniques and training in empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness, confrontation, and immediacy. The opening page of several chapters, where the author assesses the state of the country, counseling, and helping, are excellent. When the book strays from communications training topics and attempts to elaborate on initial assessments or discusses causation and remediation for the ills of society, then it is often inadequate and inappropriate. An explanation of black and white history and racial prejudice is embarrassingly shallow and superficial; the concept of human resources is too limited for meaningful impact; and the notion of social change is, at best, simple and naive. The author leads himself astray through the indiscriminate use of his training model; one can easily question the finality of his contention that "The key is training! The key is always training!"

It is accepted, sound practice for authors to inform readers when a book is fundamentally a collection of previous publications. Yet, though approximately three-quarters of this book has been previously published, the author fails to make this fact explicit. Only through diligent searching of footnotes does one learn that this is primarily a book of collected readings, and it is only in footnotes that coauthors receive credit. Similarly, it is distressing to learn that, according to the author, "human relations" means nothing more than counseling, "human relations specialists" is a euphemism for black lay counselors, and "project" means previous publication.

Because of its discussion of dubious professional practices and its superficial coverage of subject matter, this book achieves about a Level 3 evaluation: minimally effective.— *Larney R. Gump, University of Maryland, College Park.*

Interpersonal Psychotherapy by Arthur Burton. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972. 172 pp. $8.95.

Burton describes his book as follows: "All of the basics of psychotherapy are here: How to begin it, how to maintain it, and how to conclude it." This, in fact, is not a bad way to summarize what the reader will find in *Interpersonal Therapy*. Burton does a commendable job of getting one started in what he refers to as the "prospecting interview" and helping one recognize when the time for termination has arrived, but one may sometimes have difficulty putting together just how the author would have us maintain the therapeutic flow between these points that is necessary for movement from one to the other.

Although the book is described as one "designed for the learner," some sections are more appropriate for experienced therapists than for fledglings. This is, in part, the result of the author's tendency to float between the mundane, pragmatic tasks of therapy and some rather ethereal discussions of topics

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steeped in ontology, epistemology, and mythology. Nonetheless, the trip is an interesting, often fascinating, one for the reader who can withstand the bends that may accompany such changes in level.

The real strength of *Interpersonal Psychotherapy* lies in its emphasis on the basic fundamentals involved in the process of therapy. The author's approach varies from a forceful, realistic, current treatment of the dynamics of the interpersonal relationship to a unique, much-needed description of how to cope with the day-to-day housekeeping chores that are unavoidable ingredients of the total process. Although one may not always agree with Burton, he tells it exactly like he thinks it is!

On the other side of the ledger, the book would be more palatable if the author had resisted the temptation to overromanticize the profession in occasional ego trips, the highest of which reached the lofty conclusion that "Western society can no longer do without psychiatry and would indeed founder without it." And the rather skimpy coverage of research in the final chapter leaves the reader to wrestle with the rationalization that those who can, do (psychotherapy) while those who can't, do research.

On balance, the positive far outweighs the negative in *Interpersonal Psychotherapy*. It would be a worthy addition to the professional libraries of counselors and therapists alike.—*Warren R. Seymour, University of Missouri, Columbia.*

An Introduction to Counseling in the School, 2nd edition by C. H. Patterson. New York: Harper and Row, 1971. 382 pp. $9.

Changes in titles from one edition to the next usually signify a change in viewpoint. Consider then the implications of a change from *Counseling and Guidance in Schools: A First Course* (1962) to the present title.

Does it represent a change in philosophical point of view? Not really. Rather the new title reflects a strengthening of Patterson's original position, as shown by his abandonment of the term *guidance counselor.*

Patterson is probably the leading spokesman for the client-centered point of view today, and this book openly reflects this approach. He does not pretend to offer an "in-depth coverage to all the aspects of a counselor education program." Rather, his purpose is to survey the role and functions of the school counselor. He progresses from a discussion of "Education in a Democracy" to the place of student personnel services, the organization of a counseling program, and the place of the teacher in that program. Following are extended presentations of the role of the school counselor and what counseling should be provided.

It is worthy of note that Patterson accepts the importance of vocational counseling, the judicious use of test results in counseling, and the use of occupational information in counseling. Is this consistent with a client-centered approach to counseling? Absolutely! This seems to stamp Patterson as a moderate in contrast to such writers as Arbuckle who, for example, would have the counselor eschew tests.

Patterson also discusses the counseling of special groups (gifted, handicapped, disadvantaged), relationships with other personnel, educational technology, and the future. Quite a bit for an introductory text. Of necessity, in a survey text some aspects are less well covered than others. I fail to understand how the entire chapter on educational technology can omit any reference to computer-assisted guidance programs.

I could raise other questions, but they are petty compared to the major issue: Is *counseling* the activity that should occupy the overwhelming part of the school counselor's day? I cannot agree with the reviewer of the first edition (March 1963, P&G) that Patterson's stance is due to "the remoteness of the counselor educator from the school setting with its needs, demands, numbers, and limitations." I believe it is due to Patterson's philosophical consistency, which he presents lucidly and convincingly. There are many of us who would disagree and feel that the *total* guidance program must be effective in order to help students learn to make informed decisions about their future as well as their present. This calls for more activity on the part of the counselor than psychological counseling alone.
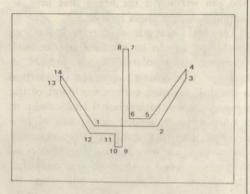
After all, is client-centeredness all there is?—*George E. Leonard, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.*

PSYCHOLOGY:

WHERE TO BEGIN

John K. Bare

Commissioned by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Social Science Education, this publication is a teacher's helpmate for organizing an introductory course in psychology. It opens with a brief history of the discipline's development, notes changes in texts and teaching methodologies and suggests ten study topics of student appeal including sleep and dreaming, animal behavior, love, and self control with emphasis on alpha rhythm.

PROGRAM ON THE TEACHING OF PSYCHOLOGY

IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL: FINAL REPORT

A Source Book

Written for teachers of general psychology, this book contains reviews of introductory texts, books of readings, and lab manuals; descriptions of psychological journals; a catalogue of audiovisual materials; a listing of psychological equipment manufacturers; bibliographies of collateral readings for students and reference works for teachers; names and addresses of national organizations; a discussion of teaching methods; and suggestions of ways to organize the first course in psychology. This publication is one of several products of a project at Oberlin College during the summer of 1970.

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The School Counselor-Consultant by Daniel W. Fullmer and Harold W. Bernard. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972. 355 pp. $8.95.

The authors of this book assert that "initiating the consultant process is the major responsibility of the counselor." And to them, consulting is "bringing together and encouraging communication between the human members of the total development milieu." It is represented as "no job for a weak and dependent milquetoast type."

The role put forward calls for working with significant others more than directly with clients, especially when the goal is to improve the learning climate of the school. The counselor-consultant proposed would operate encounter groups for all concerned and conduct inservice training in which he does such things as ask teachers to inventory their learning styles to help them understand the various learning styles of their students. He would go into the classroom with the teacher to help youngsters in need.

The implementation of this inclusive, environmental-influencing power role is left to the talent and training of the "highly competent counselor who defines his own role by virtue of his communicative skills—both individual and group." In initiating the consulting process, "He must begin on a small scale with one other person and build his competence and extend his confidence."

The book may provide a valued introduction to or review of background and concepts related to a number of counselor functions and concerns. Hundreds of references are supplied. Summaries are offered in "varieties of counseling orientation," "concept of group," "basic encounter groups," "dynamics of communication," and other areas basic to the proposed role.

Regrettably, distinctions are not made among the various work settings—elementary, middle school, junior high, high school, and post-secondary—in consideration of the proposed role. And there is too little in the book that suggests awareness of the day-to-day work of school counselors in their various work settings—their accomplishments, the criteria by which they are judged and permitted to survive, the practical problems of the current various roles. Counselor educators who sense the importance of the total

learning milieu should be vigorously working in coordinated team efforts with those training teachers and administrators as well as with all related others, rather than simply turning out brave young men to be cut down by people who do not speak the same language.

The book closes not with a challenging tying together of the role described piecemeal throughout the book but with a look at the new role of the teacher as a *facilitator* of learning. A worthwhile feature of the book indeed is its emphasis on the importance of the bond between counselors and teachers in seeking better things.—*Donald L. Peters, Will James Junior High School, Billings, Montana.*

Issues in Community Psychology and Preventive Mental Health edited by Gershen Rosenblum. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1971. 161 pp. $8.95 hardcover, $4.95 paperback.

The eight individual papers that comprise this publication constitute the report of the task force selected by the Division of Community Psychology of the American Psychological Association to identify the issues of the mental health field as viewed by community psychologists. The papers illustrate the development of the behavioral sciences that have evolved, from the earliest stages of viewing an individual as the source of his own illness to the current stage of viewing pathogenic institutions and social processes as the causes of human dysfunctions.

The report is addressed primarily to psychologists and urges their enlistment in the cause of community mental health, but the content is relevant for all mental health workers, counselors, and all others concerned about the condition of our society.

Dörken's paper opts for intervention to modify dysfunctional, pathogenic institutions instead of treating as "ill" the individuals hurt by them. Complementing this orientation, Kelley furnishes strategies for intervention through consultation, organizational change, and community development. He also contributes developmental research designs suited to accounting for outcomes outside the laboratory and uses such familiar

procedures as naturalistic and participant observation.

The papers by Bloom, Iscoe, Reiff, Cohen, and Edgerton present critical formulations representative of their different professional experiences and social orientations. While there is considerable overlap among them, Glidewell's concluding summary clarifies the issues with precision and suggests future directions for the field.

There is some intimation of naiveté in the book, as though psychologists were at last discovering the community, but this does not lessen its overall contribution. This is neither a cookbook for practice nor a basic text, and it is not intended as either. Its purpose is as clear as its title, and the purpose is well accomplished.—*Herbert J. Stern, University of Maryland, College Park.*

New Myths and Old Realities: College Counseling in Transition by Charles F. Warnath. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971. 172 pp. $7.75.

Warnath has written a delightfully candid analysis and critique of the state of counseling in colleges. I frequently concur with his evaluation but vigorously disagree with his explanations for the state of affairs. The personal goal of stirring up discussion will likely be met if the volume receives the widespread use I believe it deserves.

The chapters that identify and label problems, myths, and realities of counseling are particularly insightful and potentially useful to those attempting to assess the status of counseling in a changing environment. Warnath accurately identifies consultant roles, teachers of other individual helpers, and "out-of-cubicle" services to students as being generally discernible trends. His recurrent reference to the clinical model and therapeutic techniques as being inappropriate to this generation of college students, particularly in a period of cost effective analysis, bears thoughtful consideration by those teaching or practicing counseling. The final chapter, summarizing reported outreach programs, should be quite helpful to those searching for new procedures and approaches for relating to college students and their developmental needs.

The author occasionally gets carried away in his opinion on facets of counseling, but never in a doctrinaire way. The nearly full rejection of vocational developmental counseling for college students seems to be based on a potentially short-range college student attitude and, hopefully, a short-range bump in the economy.

Warnath holds the rather broadly accepted view that a shift to a consultation and human service or development model for counselors will emerge, and he devotes a full chapter to his specific version of it. The suggestions for training and redirecting student personnel workers, however, grossly underplay individual differences and the great diversity in higher education. Any changes in delivery of counseling or any additions of new types of student services will probably have to be done by existing personnel in this period of no expansion or actual cutbacks of college personnel, but the author says little about retraining these people.
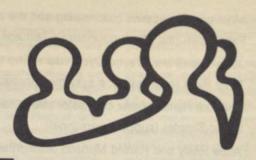
The volume ignores counseling in the two-year, junior, or community colleges and is particularly weak in the analysis of counseling of women. The absence of discussion of female counselors is striking in this period of increased attention to women's needs and professional stature.

Overall the book is hard-hitting, candid, and significant. It is delightfully free from the stereotyped style of counseling literature, which is heavily laden with quotations and references. Most of what Warnath sets forth bears thoughtful and deliberative consideration by those who teach, direct, or practice counseling on the collegiate scene.—*Charles L. Lewis, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park.*

Teaching and Guiding the Slow Learner by Baker O. Shelton. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Co., 1971. 230 pp. $8.95.

This volume, replete with examples, suggestions, and resources for teaching the slow learner, is more than a handbook. It is a thoughtful work as well, a work that lays a substantial theoretical foundation for its proposed practical and comprehensive program. Drawing on his experience as a teacher and counselor of the slow learner, Shelton has produced for teachers, counselors, and administrators a very useful book indeed.

Although his optimism is at times unre-

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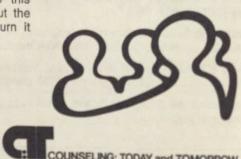
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COUNSELING: TODAY and TOMORROW

lenting, Shelton is right: He insists that we must build on the child's strengths and that we must believe that the slow learner can develop into a healthy, contributing citizen. Nor is this a romantic view of man. If we educators can widen, beyond the mere academic, the areas of learning that we value, we can find and develop the talents of slow-learning children. But the curriculum machine grinds on, sorting, labeling, and discarding those who cannot cope. Shelton proposes that we junk the philosophy of failure and the tyranny of grading and that we adapt schools to kids—not do the reverse.

Borrowing from B. F. Skinner, Shelton outlines some basic practices that should be of value to teachers, counselors, and others who are working with slow learners. His chapter "Practical Concepts for Teaching the Slow Learner" is particularly helpful for its discussion of learning theory, motivation, and family and community disorganization and their effects on the child. Schools that have no program or a limited program for slow learners will find his chapter "Initiating the Elementary Remedial Program" solid and practical.

Shelton. preserves a nice balance among the practical, the theoretical, and the personal. His experience gives his anecdotes reality and his suggestions credibility.—*John M. Cullinane, Newton (Massachusetts) Public Schools.*

High School Students—East and West by Kananur V. Chandrasekharaiah. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1972. 88 pp. $6.

Comparing attitudes of secondary school students of Montreal, Canada, and Bangalore, India, from a psychological point of view, the author introduces a broad range of social problems through questionnaire and interview data on the "hopes, aspirations, worries, and fears" of students. The data from 574 Bangalore seniors in 1967 is compared with responses of 800 Montreal 11th graders in 1970–71.

Methodological difficulties in the comparative design are evident in the three-year time lag, the different age-grade levels, the nonrandomization of the Montreal sample, the loosely defined coding system used to classify interview data, and, of course, the considerable cultural differences between the two populations.

In a descriptive but not analytical discussion, the author cites Bangalore students' primary concern as being the "immediate human problems" of food, clothing, and education rather than independence or international politics. Desires and fears of Indian students center around the family, caste, employment, language controversy, and traditional institutions of society. Although Montreal students emphasize unemployment and separatism as being among their primary concerns, the author concludes that the two populations have "essentially similar" concerns for a decent home, a steady job, a good education, and fair opportunities.

The book's foreword accurately describes a critical need for cross-cultural analysis of student attitudes and behavior, for which the author undoubtedly has the background and experience. Methodological weaknesses and the lack of any comparative analysis make the book disappointingly inadequate in fulfilling the author's promise and the guidance field's urgent need to better understand the effect of cultural differences.—*Paul B. Pedersen, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

Vocational Motivation by John F. Kinnane. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Research in the Apostolate, Inc., 1972. 133 pp. $7.95 hardbound, $5.25 paperback.

Counselors and other professionals in personnel services will be attracted to this volume by its obviously relevant title. They are likely to encounter two surprises in their contact with its contents. The first will occur when they discover that the foreword specifies that the book's basic purpose is to determine if "religious careers allow for psychological success." At this point they will remember Webster's theological definition of vocation. A narrowing of expectancies is likely to occur, and some may even be inclined to lay the volume aside. Hopefully, they will read further to encounter the second eye-opener: a gradual realization that the major portion of the book has general applications to the entire field of career theory. Most readers will then recall the old Grecian urn illustra-

tion used in beginning psychology classes to demonstrate the figure-ground relationship.

At least three-fourths of the volume is a tightly written review and discussion of the professional literature dealing with values, interests, needs, and their relationships to vocational (broadly defined) motivation. The scope and comprehensiveness is often unexpected; for example, juxtaposing the taxonomy of values proposed by 13th century St. Thomas Aquinas with Donald Super's 1970 taxonomy for the Work Values Inventory provides an insight that saves pages of elaboration.

Ascertaining the extent to which the book accomplishes its basic objective is more difficult. Clearly, the author implies that the nature of lower level positions within a bureaucracy is usually defined and shaped by authority figures within the structure. The extent to which these administrators can accept today's changing world and incorporate room for change and individual values into the organizational "job descriptions" determines, in large measure, both recruitment rates and retention levels. The applicability of this relationship applies to all establishments, be they secular or clerical.

The book is written with an unrelenting leanness that seldom wastes a word. In fact, the diet of factorial study reviews might be more digestible if accompanied by just a wee bit of fat. Occasional typographical and editing errors mar the generally high quality of the author's work. Most readers will find the going challenging but also rewarding. The book is very likely to appear in an increasing number of bibliographies for courses concerned with career theory.—*Lee E. Isaacson, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.*

School Counseling: Problems and Methods by Robert D. Myrick and Joe Wittmer. Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Co., Inc., 1972. 199 pp. $3.95 paperback.

Myrick and Wittmer build this delightful text around an intriguing array of situations that could confront the hapless counselor as he strives to complete his appointed rounds. Space—lots and lots of it—is provided for the neophyte to write out his solutions to the problems and his reactions to alternate solutions.

Just about all conceivable—plus a few really way out—crises are presented: the runaway, the dropout, the junkie, the homosexual, the draft dodger, the pregnant teenager, the obtuse principal, the demanding parent, the student radical, the female colleague with a marital problem (unspecified), and so on, almost ad infinitum.

The authors strain to highlight harrowing encounters that are timely, challenging, and "relevant." Some of their dramatis personae emerge, worn and tired, as paste-and-cardboard characters whose peccadillos are somewhat contrived.

All in a day's work, the unsuspecting counselor sashays from one crucial shoot-out to the next. There appears to be no time left for the counselor to do his own thing on his own terms in his own way.

Each cliff-hanger sports a clever and catchy moniker: "Uppers and Downers," "I Spy," "To Sir with Love," "Hair," "Have Empathy, Will Travel," etc.

The authors are at their best when they offer their observations at the end of each general topic. These brief treatises are
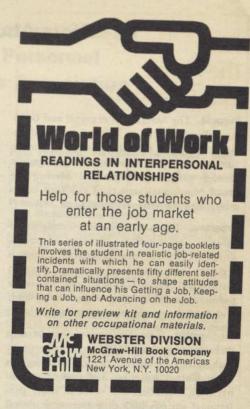
pointed and perceptive. They lucidly delineate some of the more important issues and concerns of the counselor as a co-worker, consultant, manager, and member of the community.

In sum, this feisty little book has zest, bounce, and timeliness. Its novel, activity-oriented approach is certain to provoke lively discussions in guidance techniques and practices classes, for the counseling intern, and during inservice meetings.—*Ralph Romano, Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut.*

Helping Relationships: Basic Concepts for the Helping Professions by A. W. Combs, D. L. Avila, and W. W. Purkey. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1971. 360 pp. $6.50, paperback.

This book is divided into 15 chapters and has an excellent bibliography with over 600 entries at the end. The first and last chapters are devoted to a discussion of the helper as a person and as a professional. Combs, Avila, and Purkey state that helpers need a unique combination of knowledge, spontaneity, sensitivity, and belief in order to serve their clients and society. The authors admit that they can do very little about the spontaneity and sensitivity in book form, but their self-assigned mission becomes clear in "Importance of Belief." In this section the authors point out that helpers not only must have knowledge of the phenomenological view of psychology but they also must practice in the light of this theoretical guide. Practitioners using this view of man observe behavior from an internal rather than an external frame of reference. These helpers must be attuned to observing behavior as a product of the behaver's perceptual field. Moreover, this theory emphasizes that the client's present values, feelings, and thoughts are crucial not only for an understanding of personal problems but also in order to be able to do something about them. You can do something about the present, but not much about history.

The phenomenon of growth in all living things is seen as the basis for all motives. The authors generalize from the physiological to the psychological strivings and attempt to show the varied ways in which all organisms seek satisfaction. Since they consider

growth the primary motive of living creatures, they see behavior as predictable and trustworthy. They cite the work of Frankl, Rogers, Maslow, and others to illustrate this principle of self-interest and growth. The self-concept is seen as a continually evolving phenomenon of past, present, and future. The child who is loved learns that he *is* loveable. The child who is ignored learns that he is insignificant, and he will *behave* accordingly.

Combs, Avila, and Purkey have written a significant and much-needed guide for the helping professional. They offer a wealth of insightful and constructive suggestions for discovering the meaning of the experiences of those who give and those who receive help. In addition a set of sensible guidelines for delineating one's responsibilities and managing one's time are presented in the last chapter. In short, they have given us a unified viewpoint of the behavior of both ourselves and our clients in terms of phenomenological theory.—*William J. Walsh, Diablo Valley College, Pleasant Hill, California.*

Facts About APGA

Purpose. The American Personnel and Guidance Association is a scientific and educational nonprofit organization established in 1952 to serve its members and the public through programs designed to advance the broad educational aspects of guidance, counseling, and student personnel work.

Programs. The APGA program is designed to promote and stimulate exchange of professional experience and knowledge through regional, state, and local meetings; through professional journals, monographs, and other publications on topics significant to the field; and through a national convention.

Membership. The Association's membership includes more than 28,000 men and women with bachelor's degrees or advanced degrees in guidance, counseling, and student personnel work. Members are active in many professional settings, including every educational level from kindergarten through graduate school, adult education, community agencies, government, business, and industry.

Divisions. APGA is composed of nine divisions that represent special interests within the profession. They are:

1. American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
2. Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES)
3. National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA)
4. Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education (SPATE)
5. American School Counselor Association (ASCA)
6. American Rehabilitation Counseling Association (ARCA)
7. Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance (AMEG)
8. National Employment Counselors Association (NECA)
9. Association for Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance (ANWC)

Branches. APGA's program is carried on at state and local levels through 52 state branches, as well as local chapters and state divisions of the national divisions.

Committees. APGA national committees and commissions, such as those on Human Rights, Federal Relations, Ethical Practices, Women, and International Education, reflect Association goals and help to implement its programs.

Professional Information Services. The Association provides members with publications to serve their needs and interests and to help them gain a closer understanding of the theory, philosophy, and practice that form the basis of today's guidance and counseling work.

The 10 journals published by APGA and its divisions are:

The Personnel and Guidance Journal
Journal of College Student Personnel
Counselor Education and Supervision
The Vocational Guidance Quarterly
Journal of the Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education
The School Counselor
Elementary School Guidance and Counseling
Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin
Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance
Journal of Employment Counseling

Also published periodically is the *Guidepost*, the official newsletter of APGA.

Other services APGA provides are production and sale of single publications; sale of films, reprints, and tape recordings; and the resources of a reference library.

Conventions. For the first time APGA will hold three conventions in 1973, with an expected total attendance of 19,000. The convention sites are: San Diego, February 9–12 (national); St. Louis, April 15–19 (regional); and Atlanta, May 23–27 (regional).

Headquarters. APGA Headquarters is located at 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Telephone: (202) 483-4633.

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Guidelines for Authors

When submitting an article for publication in the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an original and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space all material.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.* The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

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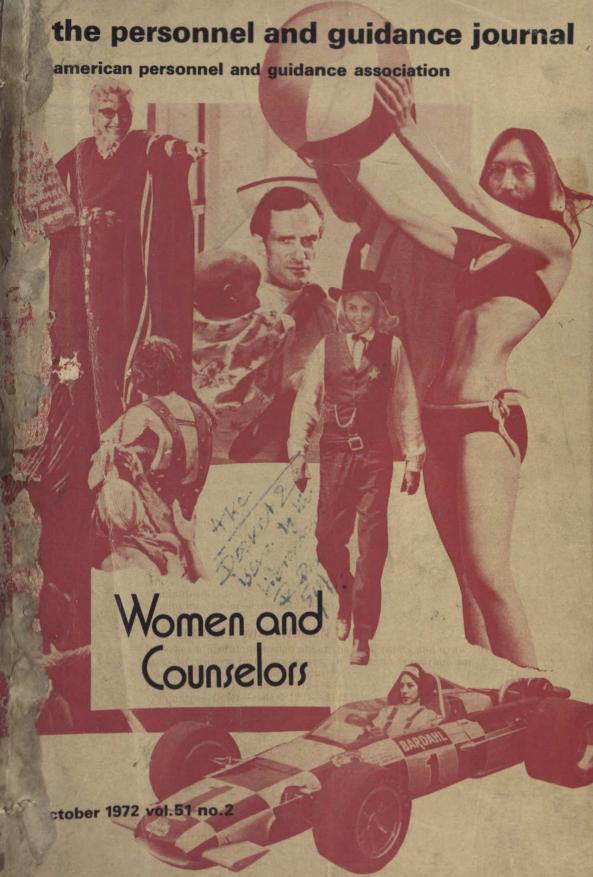
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Women and Counselors

Guest Editor:
Judith A. Lewis

the personnel and guidance journal®

About this issue

From my own perceptions and experiences, I have been realizing that
sexism is even more deeply rooted than racism. While the disease
of racism doesn't reach its full virulence until about the time children
enter school, sexism begins at birth and is, I think, more subtle
and more pervasive.

I have become increasingly sensitive to the effects of sexism in my own
behavior in general, but specifically in connection with the journal.
It took at least a year for me to realize that I tended not to think
of women's names when designating book reviewers or nominating
members of the Editorial Board, and I tended to expect less of manuscripts
written by women than those written by men. To this day I find
that I must make an extra effort to be aware of these tendencies and to
overcome them. Yet I believe that I am less sexist than most men.

When the Editorial Board decided to sponsor a special issue on women,
we were delighted to find Judy Lewis available and interested in
serving as guest editor. An experienced P&G guest editor (co-editor of the
May 1971 Social Revolution issue), she could be relied on to organize
well, to obtain the collaboration of good authors, to edit sharply
and well, and to get her stuff in on time.

Personally this issue represents a long due recognition of a major social
problem and, I hope, more than a gesture toward change. With luck,
the next generation or two will have largely solved this problem and will
wonder how their parents and grandparents could have been so
primitive. With luck, this is a turning point. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*

Introduction
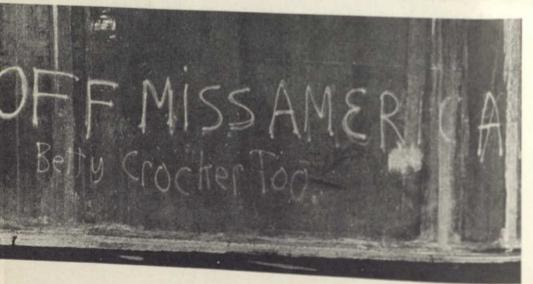
This special issue has a far-out cover, doesn't it? When people first see it, they do doubletakes and try to refocus their eyes. They think that what they are seeing is a collection of weird physical distortions, that their confusion has something to do with hair length or bone structure or body shape.

But that's not true. What we see when we look at that cover is not a physical anomaly. It is a cultural anomaly. We are seeing women in men's roles and men in women's roles, and our ideas about the roles and options available to men and women are so deeply ingrained that any distortion of that reality looks—well—really far out.

The nature of reality is changing, and the fact that women will no longer accept arbitrary limitations on their choices is beginning to seep into the consciousness of American society. Counselors, however, do not have time to sit around and let things seep. We touch too many people too closely; our potential to help or harm is too great. We must learn *now* to envision and act toward the creation of a world in which women—as well as men—are free to find their own humanness in their own way.

And that's what this special issue on counseling women is all about. ■ *Judy Lewis, Guest Editor for this issue*

We are furious (female) but we can shape our own development

L. SUNNY HANSEN

L. Sunny Hansen is Professor in the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

"Society has not been meeting the self-development needs of women, and little has been done in the schools—one of the major socialization agents."

There is no doubt that we, as females, have reason to be furious
—at the lack of regard for us as persons, as human beings;
—at the perpetuation of "factual" myths about women in the work force;
—at the myths about women as the weaker sex, myths that are reinforced and thus become self-fulfilling prophecies (Farrell, 1970);
—at the discrimination we encounter when we choose nontraditional paths and enter typically male work worlds;
—at the lack of freedom to choose from a variety of roles and life patterns;
—at the stereotypes about women that bombard us every time we turn on the television set, go to the movies, or attend a convention or party.

We also have reason to be furious at the limitations that "conscious and non-

conscious sexism" (Bem & Bem, 1970) put on the development of *male* potential. It is my belief that women's liberation is also men's liberation. The rage and fury now felt by those females whose consciousness has been raised—not just by the women's movement but also through the opportunity to develop their many potentials and to experience the richness of egalitarian marriages and mutually enriching life patterns—can also be felt by men, if they are exposed to and learn to expect different life styles. I am concerned about not just women's liberation or men's liberation, but human liberation (Farrell, 1970). At this point in time, however, we need to give special attention to women.

UNTAPPED POTENTIALS

One day a few months ago our four-year-old daughter, Sonja, was playing hospital with our two-year-old son. She said, "Come on, Torrey, I'll be the doctor, you be the nurse." Then, more recently, she suggested the same game; this time she said, "I'll be the nurse, you be the doctor." I was both surprised and disappointed—not that I have any illusions about what my children are going to be at this tender age, but I was startled at how her attitude had changed in such a short period of time. When I questioned her about her change in roles, she said flatly, in a tone that defied challenge, "*Boys* are doctors, *girls* are nurses." I don't know when and how the change came about—possibly from television— but I am disturbed that a child of four already has been influenced by occupational sex roles to the extent that she has closed her mind about what boys and girls can and cannot do. I am even more disturbed because I know that the limited research done on occupational roles and motives in the preschool and elementary years strongly indicates this early stereotyping (DeFleur, 1963; Gunn, 1964; Nelson, 1963).

Obviously, as a parent and as a female

who followed a nontraditional career pattern—and was somewhat liberated before there was even a movement—I am going to try to change my daughter's attitude. But fury alone is not going to do it; and women alone are not going to do it.

While women have much to be furious about, fury, like love, is not enough. We can have greater control over our own development if males and females, teachers and counselors all accept the responsibility of doing something about women's untapped resources and potentials. Counselors, in my opinion, must be key agents in developing and releasing these potentials through the public school, college, and vocational school settings in which they work—specifically, through counselor intervention with teachers in curriculum.

Society has not been meeting the self-development needs of women, and little has been done in the schools—one of the major socialization agents. I am aware of several curriculum packages created recently that deal with female self-development. They include "Planning Ahead for the World of Work," published by the Ohio Center for Vocational-Technical Education (Vetter & Sethney, 1971); a Learning Opportunities Package on "Women and the World of Work," developed as part of the Career Development Curriculum Project at the University of Minnesota (Thoni, Tennyson, Klaurens, & Hansen, 1970); and a kit on "Sexism in Education" being distributed by the Emma Willard Task Force on Women (1971) in Minneapolis. A civics class in Bloomington, Minnesota, has a "women's liberation" unit, developed by Anne Saxenmeyer (1971), a creative ninth grade teacher. Other programs are in process, and I am sure we will continue to see more of such efforts.

But to my knowledge there have been few attempts thus far to counteract the sex role stereotypes in the school curriculum or, more important, to create

more positive experiences to keep educational and occupational doors and alternative family patterns open for both girls and boys.

In the field of career development we are fond of talking about such concepts as "occupational identity," "occupational role models," "sense of planfulness," and "sense of agency over one's own life." Only recently have we recognized that these concepts are pretty meaningless for a woman whose main identity is through a husband's career, whose occupational role models have been stereotypic, whose sense of planfulness has been limited to having something to fall back on in case something happens to her husband, whose goal in going to college is to provide a stopgap until marriage, and whose sense of control over her own life is very limited in a society in which the focus on marriage is the major goal (Zytowski, 1969). Witness the way we have tended to label the career woman as having too much drive, being too aggressive, being odd or unusual. Witness the way we look at one of the most dehumanized females in our society—the "old maid schoolteacher"—who, despite any positive contributions she has made to developing human lives, is given a negative label because she did not succeed in the role by which our society judges successful women: catching a man.

I call attention to these things not to disparage marriage or minimize motherhood—both are important to me—but to point up a fact we have all become very conscious of in the last few years: In a society that gives much lip service to the development of human potentials, we have created all kinds of barriers to this development—through attitudes we convey; through child-rearing practices; through advertising; through schools, churches, and politics; through textbooks and curriculum; and through our personal and professional relationships. These barriers limit the self-development of women and also of men.

TAKING ACTION

I contend that we have to do something to close the gap between what women do and *can* do and thereby reduce the loss to society of their potentials.

We have to do something to reduce the parental and social pressure on girls to become this and boys to become that, when we know that in other societies a majority of dentists, physicians, engineers, judges, and even crane operators are women.

We have to do something to reduce the pressure girls face to get married at 19 or 21 or 25 for fear that if they don't they will be considered oddballs, failures, or "old maids."

We need to do something to reduce the stereotypes reinforced by television, radio, newspapers, and magazines—media that portray careers in sex-stereotyped ways—"Marcus Welby," "Perry Mason," "The Doctors," the soap operas, the old movies, the new movies, and even "Sesame Street."

We need to encourage boys and girls to challenge traditional assumptions and expectancies and help them to realize that women's career patterns may be different from those of men but that there is a variety of patterns from which a woman can and should be able to choose—whether the pattern is called interrupted, continuous, double entry, or whatever (Wolfson, 1972).

We need to help our students and clients realize that changing women's life patterns may also necessitate different work, family, and leisure patterns for men.

We need to find ways to encourage women to explore their needs, drives, commitments, preferences, and potentials in relation to a variety of possible life styles. And we need to alert them that, even with the feminist movement, the task is not going to be very easy.

If women are to develop their potentials, a number one condition—one that

counselors can help assure—is that women have a choice among a variety of career patterns, from traditional nuclear family to egalitarian marriage to single parent to single person to dichotomous career-family role. The career development concept must be redefined or reinterpreted in relation to traditional attitudes and expectancies regarding women.

To change curriculum in this area counselors will have to start working with teachers in the elementary school. It is here that girls have to start perceiving themselves as intelligent human beings and boys have to begin seeing them that way—as equals rather than as sex objects to be conquered.

We, as teachers, counselors, and counselor educators, need first to examine our own attitudes for evidence of conscious and nonconscious sexism, and we need to encourage the same kind of self-examination among our fellow educators, male and female.

We need to become familiar with the facts about women in the labor force, and we need to expose both boys and girls to these facts with the hope of introducing some reality, additional options, and free choice into their thinking and experience.

We need to find and create techniques, curricular experiences, and programs that help girls investigate and clarify their own values, examine preferred life styles and career patterns, strengthen their self-concepts, and give them a sense of control over their own destinies.

What form might these programs take?

ELEMENTARY LEVEL

At the elementary level we can work with teachers in promoting a variety of techniques to improve girls' self-concepts and self-awareness. Through positive reinforcement and "I can" experiences—including hands-on experiences with tools, work in auto mechanics, and opportunities for home maintenance and political leadership—we can help teachers up-grade girls' aspirations and keep options open rather than close them off. We can try to bring girls and boys into contact with atypical role models such as female pediatricians, female administrators, female executives, female lawyers, female mechanics, draftswomen, male nurses, male physical therapists, and male elementary teachers. We can help teachers identify and provide girls with experiences that help them learn to cope with the social system in more astute ways, help them gain the political savvy they need to have equal opportunity.

One impressive effort at the elementary level is the OCCUPAC Project developed at Eastern Illinois University (Peterson, 1972). In this project first grade boys and girls are exposed to the occupation of sewing machine operator and discover, among other things, the delight of making and using puppets. Girls and boys try out OCCUPACs in a variety of occupations, including electrician, practical nurse, secretary, landscaper, architect, and carpenter.

Counselors as curriculum resource persons can suggest many projects to teachers. They might encourage teachers to (a) create bulletin boards illustrating changing roles of women and men; (b) make sure they do not discriminate in assigning chores or leadership tasks; (c) try to instill in children the idea that work can be fun and that a career is not just an occupation but a life style; (d) show career awareness films depicting not the typical "what fathers do" and "what mothers do" but "the work that humans do" (and *need* to do); (e) break down the school walls and bring all the children into direct contact with the work world by providing visits to business and industry and by getting working parents and industrial representatives to speak to the class. If parents are not available as guest speakers, an alternative would be an "occupational show-and-tell" time, when children would bring a "mamma's bag" or "papa's bag" containing tools

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and uniforms used by parents on their jobs.

JUNIOR HIGH

At the junior high level we can help teachers provide broad, exploratory, action-oriented experiences to help both sexes see the vocational and avocational implications of school subjects. Matthews and Tiedeman (1964) found that there was a distinct change in girls' orientation between junior high and senior high, from a strong vocational orientation in the 7th grade to a strong marriage orientation in the 12th grade. Although part of this change is biologically caused, this finding, combined with the fact that students begin to ask identity questions at the junior high level, suggests a need for girls' exposure to a variety of role models: women in atypical careers, women who are effectively combining family and career roles, homemakers, working mothers, and others who can widen girls' horizons by demonstrating the multiple career patterns and opportunities from which they can choose.

Perhaps the single most important thing to be done at this level is providing the opportunity for girls to discuss with significant role models the ramifications of following traditional roles, combining a family and a career, or pursuing other life patterns. Perhaps a class could develop a resource directory of life styles of local women, containing pictures, histories, and personal statements of women in traditional, unusual, and leadership roles. Another approach might be the use of "strength groups," in which both boys and girls are helped to focus on their potentials and develop action plans to become the kinds of persons they would like to be. Both boys and girls should take desexed courses in home economics and industrial arts and be made aware of the educational paths to all kinds of occupations.

The junior high years seem to be an important time to begin the value clarification process, in which students can identify values, become aware of alternatives, obtain information, consider risks, and decide on a tentative plan. The new College Entrance Examination Board units called *Deciding* (Varenhorst, Gelatt, & Carey, 1972), although not focused on male-female concerns per se, can be helpful in this process. The Life Career Game (Varenhorst, 1969) can also help girls and boys examine values; obtain information about options; see the interrelatedness of work, education, family, and leisure; and consider alternate family styles. And those who engage in tutoring young children, doing volunteer work with senior citizens, and serving as aides in school and community centers can increase their awareness of work opportunities and satisfactions.

SENIOR HIGH

At the senior high level the counselor needs to help girls and boys continue their value clarification and examine their needs, drives, interests, and abilities as they face some real decisions that will affect their life patterns. By this time stereotypes about male and female roles should have been dealt with head on. Students now need to be made aware of the reality of discrimination in hiring, promotions, and salaries and of the subtle ways in which society imposes its values rather than allowing conscious free choice of life options. They need some apprenticeship experiences with people, workers, and role models in preferred occupations, and they need tryout tasks that will help them reality-test their preferences and tentative decisions. They need to get specific information about the educational paths to various occupations and the means to achieving life goals; for this they should be exposed to the vocational specialties or college majors related to subjects in which they have a strong interest and

do well. Direct experiences through courses in psychology of self, psychology of careers, and psychology of human relations can facilitate personal exploration. A masculinity-femininity seminar or course, a group counseling experience focusing on male and female, or a "life planning lab" in which students have an intensive opportunity to examine their values, potentials, and goals might prove productive. The new filmstrip-cassette "Jobs and Gender" (Guidance Associates, Inc., 1971) could be helpful in stimulating class or group discussion, as could a variety of well-planned consciousness-raising exercises.

The senior high curriculum offers rich possibilities for focus on women's issues. The introduction of courses in female studies or feminist history need not wait until college. Students need to know the differences between facts and myths about women and jobs—especially about working mothers. They need to be aware of women's contributions to society. They need to be aware of the implications for both men and women of choosing atypical life patterns, for example, the egalitarian pattern, in which both husband and wife have close relationships with children and there is joint decision making and sharing of household chores without loss of self-esteem or masculinity or femininity (Farrell, 1970). The counselor needs to work toward fair and impartial job and college counseling to help eliminate the double standard, which says girls have to be more qualified than boys.

MORE OPTIONS, FEWER BARRIERS

Of course, the task does not end at the senior high level. The role conflicts of undergraduate and graduate women are very real and serious. Since women have been psychologically conditioned by all the significant socialization agents to think of themselves as being unable to contribute to society, it is easy to understand that identity for most women has

not come through career planning or vocational thinking.

It is my sincere belief that if career development programs and curriculum efforts become as pervasive and effective as I hope, male-female role problems—and the concomitant fury—will be greatly diminished in the next generation.

I'd like to think that my four-year-old daughter will have more options from which to choose, fewer barriers to face if she chooses to combine family and career, less discrimination if she enters the labor force, fewer stereotypes about what she can and cannot do. I hope that she and her brother will have a wide range of choice and freedom when they decide on the life style, career, or life pattern that will be most self-actualizing for them. I may not be able to counteract completely the impact of television, but with the help of concerned counselors and teachers who are trying—through counseling and curriculum—to change their own and their students' attitudes and behavior, we may be able to dispense with the fury, liberate women's *and* men's potentials, and have the genuine opportunity to shape our own lives. ∎

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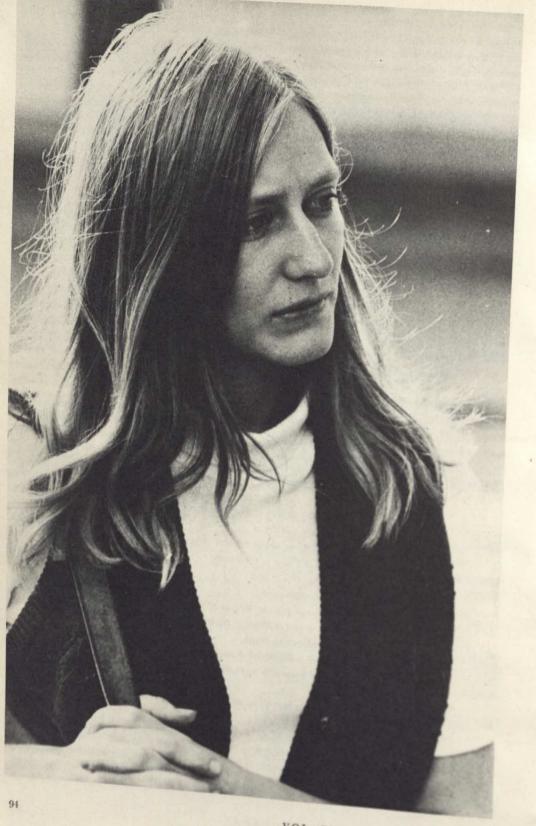
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Woman in a World of Men

A woman in a world of men
forgets:
that she is woman.
and wonders why
she needs to follow just a step behind,
while others file on past.
She asks:
Why she must try so hard
to do
what others manage with an easy grace,
then questions
whether she is all she thought she was;
or if there is a chance
that she is less.
The question,
like a puzzle with a missing piece,
a word without a rhyme,
defies the mind;
yet will not let it rest;
till someone says to her
one day,
"So pleased to meet you;
Is it Mrs.,
or is it Miss?"
and suddenly—
she remembers.

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Only now am I beginning to understand the socialization process I went through. My parents, I'm sure, intended to encourage me in every way to follow my own interests, never realizing that they had a narrow concept of femininity. I remember how my mother resisted for a long time my requests for a Barbie doll. For one thing, she didn't like the idea of dolls having secondary sex characteristics, mainly because she didn't want me identifying with a sex symbol. But she also was against the Barbie doll because young girls couldn't hold it in their arms and "mommy" it. Grandmother broke the stalemate by giving me one for Christmas. I retained both values, however, admiring the sex symbol and looking forward to motherhood and family life.

I went through an interesting stage in junior high school, which I call my cheerleader-Valentine Queen period. It was exciting—going to basketball games, meeting guys after school, and making out (which meant going as far as passionate French kisses) at parties. I was involved in all kinds of extracurricular activities, I won the American Legion Award, and I was on the high honor roll nearly every year. It was funny, though. One thing I noticed was that I really liked the guys better that I could not beat in ping pong. Not that I rated them solely by this talent, but it seems strange that I liked the ones better that could beat me, even though I hated losing.

We moved away for a year and then moved back to our hometown. I'm almost glad that we got away from Oakmont for a year, if only because it prevented me from being a cheerleader for two years. Some of my friends still have not gotten out of the cheerleader syndrome. There has to be something odd about looking like the campus cover girl all the time and cheering someone else on without taking any action or getting any of the glory for yourself. If one uses that definition, most wives today are cheerleaders.

My most valuable experience in college so far has been the discussions I've had with friends. One thing that always comes up is sex, and we've discovered that we've all had inferiority complexes about our bodies. To each of us, being short, flat-chested, fat, or pimpled was an extremely upsetting dilemma. We slowly began realizing the extent to which we had been affected by the image of the "perfect body." I was really comforted to learn that other people also felt inadequate, even though at first the problems of the others seemed trivial compared to mine. I finally realized that everyone has nice things about her body. We all receive reinforcement from one another, and most of us can now look forward with joy and confidence to new relationships and challenges.

College has been full of extraordinary learning experiences for me. The hardest part has been recognizing and eliminating the hangups that keep me in the role of the stupid, weak, bouncing coed. I will no longer tolerate the legal, political, and especially the social rules that do not allow me to utilize my full potential. I love children and I love (some) men, but I cannot see myself stagnating, living my life only through my husband and children. Whatever happens, I want and plan to fulfill the best that is in me.

Gentle Rape

Gentle
   but deep
     subtle
       like it's
         not happening
slowly
   with a little
     guilt
      and with
       apologies
the rape
   goes on
     plundering
       that part
      of me
       that carefully
      houses
       my spirit
       and my
       life.
So polite
  the rape
   that when
    slow death
     finally comes
     it will be
      to almost all
       a shocking
       grim
        surprise.

Jani Nyborg Sherrard
Amherst, Massachusetts

The elementary school:
training ground for sex role stereotypes

JEAN BERNSTEIN

Jean Bernstein is Curriculum Coordinator, Park Forest Elementary School District #163, Park Forest South, Illinois.

"Sexism starts with kindergarten activities in which little girls are directed to the housekeeping corner, while boys are steered toward blocks and trucks."

It's show-and-tell time at Typical Elementary School, and the success of the family socialization process is glaringly obvious to those who choose to see.

Picture Billy Adams. Sturdy and rosy-cheeked, he stands with his feet planted firmly on the floor. "I brought my truck for show-and-tell, teacher. It's red and it puts out fires. See the hoses? When I grow up, I'm going to be a fireman."

Now picture Sally Barnes. She's plump and dimpled, and she holds her baby doll cradled in her arms. "See my baby, teacher? I take care of her. I give her a bottle and I change her diapers. When I grow up, I'm going to be a mommy."

Billy and Sally represent the norm in their kindergarten class, and they point up their parents' success in teaching them who they are. Their show-and-tell presentations illustrate a fact well known to primary grade teachers: Children internalize their stereotypes about sex roles long before they enter public school.

Billy is the product of parents who prize manly, robust little boys. He already knows that he will grow up to work, to do, to create. Sally is the feminine little girl her parents adore. She knows that she will grow up to watch, to serve, to procreate.

Of course, the establishment of sex roles is not to be blamed solely on the elementary school. But to assume that our schools can do little to change the role stereotypes established by society as a whole is to assume that schools are always to be followers, never leaders; always reactors, never creators. If we view the educational process as an enlarging experience for children, an offering of multiple opportunities for personal growth and development, we must test the sex role experiences of children in our schools against the guiding assumptions on which the educative process is based. When so tested, elementary schools must bear heavy responsibility for the reinforcement of sexual stereotypes.

LIMITING POTENTIAL THROUGH LEARNING

Sexism starts with kindergarten activities in which little girls are directed to the housekeeping corner, while boys are steered toward blocks and trucks. In primary classrooms the workbench is a more popular play area for boys than girls. In many classrooms invisible boundary lines separate the "boy stuff" from the "girl stuff," and these lines limit the number of activities considered acceptable for girls. Schools thus provide a shrinking of alternatives instead of an expansion.

Outside the classroom, recess and physical education activities are often strongly differentiated. Boys usually get first claim on balls and bats, while girls are offered jump ropes and jacks. By the intermediate grades the sexes are often separated for gym and health classes, and this separation goes beyond the physical use of space and objects. Programs on menstruation exclude boys, although boys too have many questions about it.

By the junior high years sex roles are so pat that no one questions home economics classes as the special province of girls and industrial art and manual training classes as male territories. Competitive sports are generally reserved for boys. After all, no appropriately feminine young lady should want to beat boys on the ball field or the track course.

This kind of emphasis is apparent in the ways that many teachers and administrators unconsciously reinforce sex stereotypes. Teacher expectations are different for girls than for boys, and these expectations can place a psychic burden on sensitive and introspective boys and on outgoing and aggressive girls. Girls are encouraged to develop feminine dependency by obtaining help with physical tasks; boys are to manage on their own. Boys are expected to be physically aggressive; girls are cautioned to "act like ladies."

The greatest problem may be the contradictory message our schools give. We encourage girls to be good students: to learn, to perform, to achieve. Yet these same girls are criticized if they are too competitive or take too much pride in their academic accomplishments. "Be good, but not too good," we seem to be saying. "Nobody likes an aggressive girl." Thus, many girls become as afraid of success as failure and opt out of academic excellence by the time they reach high school.

DISTORTING REALITY THROUGH READING

Textbooks also reflect sexual stereotypes. All too often basal readers celebrate stereotypic nuclear family roles. Father, in the textbook family, goes off to work, while Mother remains at home to cook and clean. Rarely is a woman pictured whose identity stems from her own achievements rather than from her marital status.

Not only do these readers stereotype

sex roles of adult males and females; they greatly distort the activities of boy and girl characters as well. The Feminists on Children's Media has studied more than 150 school readers and has developed a bibliography entitled *Little Miss Muffet Fights Back,* comprised of less sexist children's books.* They found that, in the readers studied, girls are rarely able to solve problems; they are almost always shown observing boys doing something. In one reader, for instance, the boys play in a box and make it into a boat and a plane. The girls can't think of anything to do with it except play house.

Our social studies textbooks further deny the roles and contributions of American women. Oh yes, an occasional woman is thrown in. Pocahontas and Sacajawea are great favorites—but they earned their laurels by serving men. The social studies we teach is the story of man's development, and almost all heroes are male. Nor does the discussion of issues redress the imbalance. With all the attention paid to the Civil War and the emancipation of the slaves, students never discover that the new rights gained by blacks did not apply to women. Famous women of that period—Prudence Crandall, the Grimke sisters, Sojourner Truth—have never made it into the textbooks. Clara Barton has; after all, she was a nurse.

Preadolescent girls can find little on the library shelves to challenge the misconceptions presented in their classroom readers or textbooks. Librarians are becoming increasingly aware that most books about girls suffer from the "Little Miss Muffet" syndrome. Little girls in books play with dolls, keep house, jump rope, and are afraid. Little boys in books fix things, play games, and have exciting adventures. Older girls form clubs, hold bake sales, and worry about their looks.

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* For a copy of this bibliography, send 50¢ and a stamped envelope to Feminists on Children's Media, P.O. Box 4315, Grand Central Station, New York, N. Y. 10017.

Older boys build clubhouses, win athletic contests, and solve mysteries.
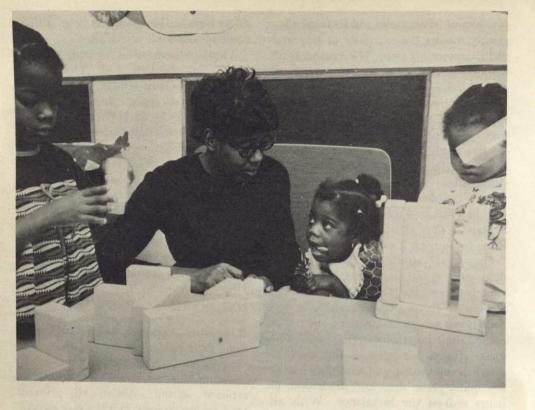
Think about some of the favorite books that children read. The fantasy worlds of Maurice Sendak and Dr. Seuss are almost all male. The "I Want to Be . . ." books by Carla Green show little boys as pilots, engineers, and auto mechanics and little girls as stewardesses, secretaries, and teachers. The prejudice in favor of male heroes continues with books for older children. One of the Newberry Award winners for excellence in children's books contained this advice for girl readers: "Accept the fact that this is a man's world, and learn how to play the game gracefully."

ROLE MODELS

If the school experiences of boys and girls limit their options of role development, these options are even further limited by the adult role models they see in the educational setting. Almost all primary teachers are women, so it is a rare experience for children to see a man playing the loving, nurturing role of a teacher of the very young. Women teachers dominate the upper elementary grades as well, with only an occasional male in the classroom at that level. More than 80 percent of our elementary teachers are women, a statistic that gains even more meaning when we consider that 80 percent of the principals are men.

The fault for this situation lies directly with our teacher training institutions and with the hiring and promotion policies of our public school districts. Warm, empathic men are not encouraged to go into elementary education; if they persist, they are "counseled" into the intermediate and junior high grades. Bright young women, on the other hand, are programmed into the earlier grades and discouraged from pursuing subject matter teaching interests. Once counseled, the young teacher faces the public school system, where administrators seem to follow the lead of one personnel super-

intendent, who declared, "I hire feminine women and masculine men. I want these kids to see healthy adults in the teaching role."

But there are many ways to be healthy and many ways to be masculine or feminine. It rarely occurs to those doing the hiring in education today that children can best develop satisfactory sex roles by having many models from which to choose. Promotion policies are just as limiting. A capable male teacher in the elementary school will be advised to get his master's degree in administration so that he can move into the ranks of principals. A similarly qualified female teacher will be encouraged to obtain a master's in early childhood education or curriculum. Thus, the talent pool of available principal candidates is heavily overloaded with men. But the options for sex role definition would be enlarged if students could see more men as interesting and loving teachers and more women as effective and competent administrators.

LIBERATING THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Like any established institutional setting, the schools are slow to change. The liberation movement for women, an accepted force on the national scene, will find the school bureaucracy as hard to penetrate as have racial and ethnic groups seeking school programs to more adequately meet the needs of minority group students. Women may find it even harder, for, no matter how poorly the needs of girls are met, there is little indication that even the leaders in elementary education take the issue of sexism seriously.

Fortunately, there are many individual teachers and counselors who *do* take sexual stereotyping seriously, and they can do much to reduce it in our schools. The pupil personnel worker serves a number of functions in the elementary school, including consultant to teachers and administrators and leader of the guidance program. These functions place

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him or her in a prime position to facilitate movement.

The Pupil Personnel Worker as Consultant

As consultants, there are a number of appropriate activities in which we can work with our peers to reduce sexism in the schools.

1. Meet with groups of teachers, or even the whole faculty, to discuss the issue of sexism. An abstract discussion might help to bring others around to your general way of thinking, but if you want action rather than talk, have some specific suggestions to make about what they can do. A good starting point might be a discussion of direct actions or curriculum projects that have been tried out in other schools.

2. Examine the classroom programs and curriculum materials presently used in your school. Find out how they reinforce sexual stereotypes. Find out what supplementary materials can be provided to emphasize the varied roles of women today. With a background of solid evidence about what is and what can be, you will have a chance to be effective in your approaches to individual teachers and administrators.

3. Ask the school librarian to look at the Feminists on Children's Media study of sexism in children's books. Suggest that she use the group's bibliography as an aid in the selection of new titles.

4. Consult with the administration of your local school district concerning hiring and promotion policies; make certain that you have facts to back you up. Your professional organization might be the appropriate resource for data on employment patterns in the district. How many men teachers are there? At what grade levels? How many women administrators? What is the district doing to comply with new laws forbidding sex discrimination in employment?

The Pupil Personnel Worker as Guidance Leader

In addition to consulting with others instrumental in formulating and carrying out the school's policies, the pupil personnel worker is in a position to enhance the guidance program, which itself might be limiting options instead of enhancing alternatives.

1. Examine after-school programs and activities. Try to include girls in some of the activities now reserved for boys and boys in some of the activities that have been considered female sanctuaries. Consider new activities that could be offered to boys and girls together.

2. Use community resources to help children see men and women in different roles. Arrange for classroom visits with a woman lawyer or engineer or a man in the arts.

3. Schedule field trips as part of the vocational guidance program. It takes some searching, but places *can* be found where men and women work together on an equal basis.

4. Try to develop closer school contact with fathers as well as mothers.

But most of all, examine the attitudes and values that you display as a counselor working directly with boys and girls.

Next time Sally tells you that she wants to be a mommy when she grows up, remind her that being a mommy is not necessarily a full-time job. After all, the average woman lives 40 years after her last child enters school and more than 25 years after that child graduates from high school. What are you going to do with the rest of your life, Sally?

And you'd better tell Billy to get off that fire truck occasionally and learn to cook breakfast and sew on buttons. The wife of the future will not be in the kitchen full time, Billy, so you'd better learn to take care of yourself. ■

The administration in my school system is 100 percent male. The nearest a woman has gotten is building supervisor—and she's six feet tall and has a deep voice.

The superintendent refers to my morning discussion group for parents as my "Koffee Klatch."

Occasionally I get invited to an administrative meeting, and usually I'm the only woman there. Everyone stands up, tells me how nice I look, and then I'm asked to serve the coffee.

Two years ago there was an opening for director of guidance and special services in my school system. I wanted that job, but I didn't apply because of my responsibilities at home.

Recently a male fellow counselor complained of fatigue. His wife was in the hospital, and he was going home every day to washing, cleaning, cooking, shopping, child care. How 'bout that?

My husband thinks I'm liberated because I have a paying job—but my job is kind of professional mothering. Have I chosen it through guilt over straying from home?

In my psychology seminar last semester the instructor gave the class a variety of interest and aptitude tests that were supposed to offer a guide for choosing educational and career goals. I was shocked when I discovered that there were two different scales for the same test score—one for males and one for females—and that, for a fairly unusual woman, I was a rather average man. When I questioned the instructor about why there were two different scales and how it would be possible to determine a pattern to follow, he replied that teaching was always a good profession for a woman. The battle began.

As I listened to the sarcasm and ridicule he used to stifle me in true Archie Bunker tradition, I decided that providing him with facts might embarrass him into taking a more reasonable position on women in regard to education and employment. I chose "Possible Long-Range Effects of the Women's Liberation Movement" as my topic for study, and I contacted the small group on campus to find out something about the women's movement.

I found out.

I found out not only about the movement, but about women, men, sex, law, and society in some very general and also some very specific terms. But I am 32 years old, married, and mother to six children! I vigorously resisted each new attack on society and my female role because it was destroying everything I had ever believed in and leaving me nothing. I tested every premise of the movement in every way I could—and found it true. Society could no longer comfort me with: "The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world."

As I compared each new tenet with my personal experience, I felt sick, then angry—and I finally developed an intense determination to change my society, my husband, and myself.

My involvement with the women's movement is total and, I believe, lifelong. It seems incredible now that something of which I was completely unaware (at least consciously) less than one year ago could have had such a profound effect on my life.

My former seminar instructor has come to agree with me in many areas—concerning me. He thinks I am unique, different from most women, and therefore deserving of "liberation." He is wrong. *All* women are feminists inside, but they consciously or unconsciously suppress their deep longing for the dignity and freedom that are accorded men as their birthright.

'60's as institutions of higher education began to retool in response to the needs of middle-aged women who, as World War II brides, retreated from the world of wages and higher education into a world of infants—and then had second thoughts.

These women led the way back to the classroom and the labor market. It became the Great Return, gaining momentum over a decade and altering the patterns and expectations traditionally followed by married women whose options were generally limited to home and community work.

These developments raised significant questions about educational programs and societal expectations for women. Institutions of higher education initiated special programs and modified requirements to accommodate women's changing needs. Increasing educational concern and response permeated not only colleges and universities but eventually reached the high school guidance counselor, who had been limiting the horizons of female counselees to traditional women's occupations—teaching, nursing, social services.

What resulted was the life planning, or "span plan" approach. Young women were advised to think about a second career as their children reached high school age. The Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor said at the time that 42 percent of high school senior girls would work outside the home for at least 25 years. Workshops were initiated and sponsored by the Women's Bureau to communicate these developments, and counselors were admonished that young women needed to plan curriculums that would have credibility for the "empty" years of their lives.

Meanwhile the women's movement, with its cry for equal rights and reduced job discrimination, burst upon the scene in the late 1960's. The National Organization for Women (NOW) and a number of more militant groups directed atten-tion to the dilemma of women. Sexism finally became commonly identified as the consequence of our outmoded pattern of socialization.

WHAT'S HAPPENING NOW

But that was the '60's, and only the beginning of change in young women's attitudes and aspirations. Now, just as counselors are beginning to grasp the implications of those first small steps, it is time for them to move on, time for them to accept the fact that the evolution of the New Womanhood is far from completed. The '70's require that more educators and counselors tune in to the consequences of an evolutionary change in attitudes concerning girls and women that has been in motion for over a decade. The college or university woman and many of her young high school sisters have moved far beyond the second career concept and are embracing a totally new era.

The New Womanhood reaches beyond the traditional educational and vocational dimensions. It embraces the personhood of a woman and has less regard for sex role typing. Career development for young women is no longer a sideline. It is central to the life style and raison d'être of increasing numbers of young women today.

Counselors must now redefine what it means to be a woman in the '70's and, in many instances, must take a giant step to increase their understanding. There is more involved than the question of job or no job. Lessened interest in the production of children and the availability of alternate living arrangements bring new possibilities and new pressures and require new decision-making processes. Single women are receiving increasing prestige in our society, and many young women are beginning to view singlehood as a distinct and desirable possibility. There is a progressive and accelerated rethinking of marriage, child rearing, and family organization among many

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family sociologists. And while it is true that many young girls still seek traditional roles and life styles, marry early, and have a child or two, it is equally true that many will become disenchanted with this pattern. As they tire of total domestic responsibilities or are forced into action by divorce, many will seek day care for their children and launch themselves into the world of work.

"The times they are a-changin'," and high school and college counselors must begin to counsel girls for what is really going on in the world today.

COUNSELORS RESOCIALIZED

For counselors to do this, they must understand, sympathize with, and support the altered objectives, aspirations, and expectations of young women; they particularly must acknowledge the fact that these are part of a new style of living. Counselors should be aware of new trends and accept the challenge to use group or individual counseling, testing, and innovative techniques to teach girls to anticipate changing needs. Barriers to career opportunities and vocational advancement are being demolished by equal opportunity legislation, enforcement procedures, and social pressures. But young girls and women must learn that this is happening, and that involves new responsibilities and tasks for school counselors.

The world of work must be scrutinized far beyond the guidance information folders in the counselor's office. Textbooks and other classroom materials must no longer communicate limited sex roles and stereotypes. The counselor at best can provide leadership to teachers and administrators by suggesting curriculum and media materials that describe and depict new life options and opportunities for girls and women. The counselor at least can be sure to work with very recent educational and vocational information. Alert counselors must

1. Collect materials describing emerging opportunities for women in new fields such as ecology, consumer health, home-related services, and apprentice professional training.

2. Seek, secure, and use newly developed materials, such as the APGA cassette series *Counseling: Today and Tomorrow* (one cassette of which is currently being prepared in cooperation with the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor) and films and other media presentations that combat sexism by showing women in job, career, and political situations commonly set aside for men only.

3. Arrange educational and informational sessions to help parents understand and accept the life and career perspectives of their daughters.

4. Assist girls to make occupational choices in traditional male occupations such as dentistry, engineering, law, and medicine.

5. Motivate girls toward leadership positions and career goals that lead to the highest levels of responsibility in private business and local, state, and federal government.

6. Provide detailed assistance with scholarship, loan, and fellowship opportunities and applications that are needed to support girls and women, who have traditionally been ruled out as bad risks.

7. Plan community workshops and seminar sessions for employers and school placement officers to check out new job opportunities and avenues of career advancement for women. Such exchanges will foster important firsthand understanding of what is happening in institutions and organizations to diminish barriers that block women from top level assignments. Counselors should be alert for subtle attitudinal forces and factors responsible for these barriers and on the lookout for token arrangements, which often parallel the upward movement of blacks.

8. Make an all-out effort to understand barriers that women put in front of them-

selves. Girls have been socialized to avoid certain career roles and high level responsibilities. Career-marriage conflicts and fear of failure (Horner, 1969) must also be dealt with in the context of counseling for the New Woman.

9. Assist in explaining to young men, who are often baffled by the New Womanhood, the rising vocational and career priorities of girls and women.

VIBES

Counselors need to take a number of steps on their own before they can adequately increase their capacity to counsel for the New Womanhood.

Counselor education curriculums can look toward the women's studies programs that are now being developed in major colleges and universities throughout the country. There are over 700 such courses at the present time (KNOW, Inc., 1971). Counselors should know about them for the sake of their counselees but should also consider them very pertinent inservice and outservice training programs for themselves.*

Counselors can also seek assistance from outside sources. One such source involves specially funded projects that include the new early career planning and development approach of the U.S. Office of Education. Pilot projects incorporating prevocational assignments for junior high school girls can afford an

early introduction to the world of work, its challenges, and its priorities.

Counselors concerned about the changing expectations and aspirations for women will also want to pay special attention to their own acceptance or rejection of the myths that still surround the role of women in certain segments of the work world. Determined effort to expand awareness by reading about and pursuing educational experiences can explain and dispel such myths as: (a) women do not want to work for a woman boss; (b) women take more sick leave than men; (c) older women workers are unattractive and inefficient; (d) women suffer unmentionable, vague diseases in middle life.

Counselors must· be aware of their responsibilities beyond vocational and academic guidance. They must also assist young men and women to understand and adapt to the altered aspirations of women regarding career and family priorities.

It will be the climate, the "vibes," of the school counselor's office that will set the stage for counseling a new generation of women now being exposed to a new set of possibilities, potentials, and problems. ∎

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The working woman: can counselors take the heat?

a conversation with
DOROTHY HAENER

During her long and active career, Dorothy Haener has worked as an assembler, sewing machine operator, receiving inspector, final inspector, department clerk, and statistical quality controller. She joined the United Auto Workers (UAW) in 1941, holding various positions at the local union level, including that of being the first woman to serve on the bargaining committee, prior to her appointment to the staff of the UAW in 1953. She was active in organizing office and technical employees until her transfer to the UAW Women's Department in 1961. In addition to her union work, she participates in a number of community, civic, and church organizations. She is a founding member of the National Organization for Women, a founding member of the National Women's Political Caucus, and a member of the President's Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities. In this interview with guest editor Judy Lewis, she shares with us some of her impressions of the hard realities of the working world and her perceptions of the role that counselors must play to bring about the very necessary upheaval in American thought.

LEWIS: I think our readers might first be interested in learning about some of the goals and processes that you're involved in through the UAW Women's Department. What kinds of activities are included in your work?

HAENER: Our primary area of operation involves getting more women active in the union itself and doing an education job concerning women's rights and opportunities. We use local and regional conferences, but a lot of our work is done through women's committees, where women can talk about some of their common problems, try to reach solutions, and gain a lot of insight. Some of the new women's groups are using this same kind of process now, but the UAW Women's Department has been doing it for 25 years. We've gotten criticism, by the way, for practicing some kind of reverse discrimination, for separating women from the mainstream somehow. But it's the same as what has taken place with the black movement. We have to get ourselves together before we can get into the mainstream.

LEWIS: Then women, *as women*, face some severe common problems as they participate in the work force.

HAENER: The basic problem is that the farther down the economic ladder you

go the greater is the discrimination against women. There are tremendous pressures to maintain women in "female ghetto jobs" and to reserve all of the higher paying jobs for men. One of the most flagrant offenses in industry is that it's almost impossible for women to move into craft and skilled trade jobs. There has been some improvement, and there should be changes under Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act as well as the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Affirmative Action Order #4, but progress is very slow. No one has come to believe that women should have these jobs, and many of these jobs pay more than professional people would expect to make. The female ghetto jobs are all grossly underpaid, and whenever a job starts to pay very well, it becomes a man's job, no matter what kind of work is involved.

One move that would help greatly would be to change the language of the Equal Pay Act so that people would receive equal pay for *comparable* work rather than for equal skill, effort, and responsibility. Then you can start to compare, for instance, an industrial nurse with a millwright or electrician. Or compare a stenographer's work with that of a janitor and increase her pay accordingly. The women in these jobs have skills but aren't compensated for them.

LEWIS: Then you need kind of a two-pronged effort: to get women into the higher paying jobs and at the same time assure them fair pay for the kinds of jobs they're presently doing.

HAENER: That would do a great deal to eliminate the pitting of one group against another, which is so apparent in the scramble to enforce laws that give you the opportunity for higher paying jobs when the jobs don't exist and won't exist in an economic structure that is shrinking rather than expanding. But even when there are jobs the resistance to hiring women is tremendous. There was a period in the Detroit area when employers were going down to Appalachia to recruit workers for jobs that were within commuting distance of Detroit, and they came back with white males. When the UAW raised strenuous objections, we got them to hire men from the inner city, but it still took a couple of years before these employers would start hiring women. When you pay an assembler $4 or $4.50 an hour, employers just feel it's a man's job.

There was another case in Indiana. There had been layoffs in a plant, and women had the right to bump into janitors' jobs. The company said this was a man's job, since it required heavy lifting. While all this was being worked out, the company arbitrarily farmed out the work to an outside contractor. This contractor brought in groups of women to do the work, and they were paid roughly half of what the male janitors in the union had been receiving. When the rate was less, women could do the work. After the work was returned to the union, there wasn't any more argument, but it points up how conditioned we are to accept the status quo.

LEWIS: And that conditioning applies to the women as well as the people with the power to open the opportunities.

HAENER: Women start out being taught and counseled that there is a strong differentiation between men's and women's roles. Then, on the job, there is great pressure placed on the woman who tries to move up. She's told that it's a man's job, that she wouldn't be happy there. If she persists, they find ways of making life miserable for her. This can be documented by the number of complaints filed with the Equal Employment Opportunities Commission over the years. It's typical of society generally. We've been more successful than some because we educate women about their rights under the law, but you still find women who say that it's not worth the trouble to exert their rights because they won't be able to tolerate the pressure.

The Equal Pay Act and the 1964 Civil

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Rights Act have provided the basis for documenting discrimination, though, and for encouraging women to exercise their options. Some women don't want to rock the boat, but an extra $1.50 or $2 an hour will make them think it over more strongly. And it only takes one individual to rock the boat. The women in this country should pay tribute to those few rare individuals who had the guts to persevere under the 1964 Civil Rights Act—people like Lenore Weeks of Atlanta, who took a great deal of abuse for years but who persevered.

It's documented that $40 million in back wages is due to women under the Equal Pay Act alone—and this doesn't even affect professional, managerial, or executive classifications or the lowest paying classifications. That's $40 million stolen from the pockets of working women—money that could have been used to put shoes on their kids' feet or buy decent food or put a child through college. That's the real gut issue, not some of the catchier image kinds of things that the media enjoy publishing. And we need strong counseling to bring about the upheaval in our thinking we need to deal with the gut problem.

LEWIS: How do you think counselors, either in agencies or schools, can help?

HAENER: As far as counselors in the public agencies or vocational agencies are concerned, we've found that they can have a great deal to do with the provision of equal opportunity. A lot of times there are training programs available to their clients, but sometimes counselors just don't place women in certain programs because they're afraid the women won't be able to get jobs once they've received the training. Of course, there is progress being made, and a lot of people are trying. But the people in the agencies have to rid themselves of the idea that there are jobs for men and other jobs for women. Legally, that's no longer true.

LEWIS: Then counselors in the agencies should be encouraging women to enter training programs and also working on the employers to make sure fair employment legislation is implemented.

HAENER: Counselors have to stop counseling toward accepting the status quo—not only agency counselors but public school counselors as well. A counselor will encourage a girl to be a nurse, which means that her parents will have to foot the bill while she's receiving her training. If she were a boy, she might go into an apprenticeship program, such as a millwright, an electrician, or a tool and dye program. A boy in a program like this makes more money while he's in training than that girl will make after she has finished, and he'll always make more than she will. Counselors working with young girls who can't afford to go to college have a special responsibility. They should be counseling these girls to be unwilling to settle for low paying jobs as filing clerks or waitresses. There *are* better paying jobs, even if they are considered men's jobs. There aren't "men's jobs" any more.

LEWIS: Then sometimes counselors unwittingly perpetuate the female ghetto jobs because of their own inability to look past the status quo.

HAENER: It's not only what happens in the counseling office, either. A great deal has to be done to change the emphasis of the entire school, from the kindergarten on up. The schools sell children on the idea that the woman's role is in the home and that if she happens to work, it's to provide extra income for a wall-to-wall carpet. This isn't reality. Girls have to learn that they will be spending a considerable amount of time in the work force, even if they get married and have children. The families that have moved into the middle class in recent years have done so because they had two incomes. Otherwise they would still be in poverty. And the number of women in the work force continues to grow.

Expansion of our economy depends on

the purchasing power women generate, but the schools keep perpetuating this idea that a woman's work isn't important. The first elementary school readers show the father going off to work with a briefcase and the mother staying home to clean up. That just isn't reality. Most fathers don't go to work with briefcases anyway. I often think that it would be a good idea for the people who write those textbooks to spend one month of their lives really working—punching in at 7 a.m., having half an hour for lunch, doing repetitive work all day long. Then their idea of what work is all about would change, and their textbooks would change.

LEWIS: Then they might stop looking at women's work as some kind of a hobby.

HAENER: That's right. And the ideas about what family life ought to be are also very damaging to children. They're taught in school that the place for child care is in the home. This is so much a part of our society that when ADC [Aid to Dependent Children] mothers are finally placed in training programs or jobs, they're generally not asked what kind of child care facilities they need—only who they can get to come into their homes and care for the children. Actually, good child care centers can do a better job, and it's not difficult to set the wheels in motion when it is seen as necessary; we found that out during World War II.

The point is: Women work because they must work, and they shouldn't have to deal with the personal pressure of feeling guilty because they're not home taking care of their children during the day. Families where both parents work because they want it that way are among the most stable and well adjusted. And studies have shown that children are hurt just as much by the lack of attention from a father who is holding down two or three jobs (so he can maintain his wife and family at home) as from a mother who is working. We need strong counseling for both boys and girls. It's not

kind to a man to make him think that he is less than a man because he can't support his wife and family by himself. And it's not kind to a woman to make her think that because she takes a job she's threatening her husband's manhood.

LEWIS: Have you found a lot of this kind of conflict in the families of the women you work with?

HAENER: The woman who is working faces two kinds of pressures from home. One is that she really has two jobs. Besides what she does at work, she still has the cooking and cleaning to do and the family to take care of. The younger generation seems to be making some compromises in this direction, but in the older generations the woman still carries the full load at home. Second, the woman's husband often feels guilty about the fact that his wife has to work. Although he accepts that necessity for financial reasons, he feels that her place is in the home the rest of the time. Many women have a difficult time getting active in union affairs because their husbands object to their going to meetings of an organization that is predominantly male or because their husbands want them to come right home after work.

LEWIS: Then counselors have an important job to perform in working with young kids. They need to help them deal with their personal attitudes toward men's and women's roles and toward work, in addition to providing encouragement for young women ready to make decisions about their careers.

HAENER: There is a tremendous job to be done. There are always people who say you're moving too fast, who say the women aren't with you. But that's like saying that those people in Alabama didn't really want to vote so no one should be pushing for voting rights legislation. There are people who have to bear the burden of stepping out and taking the heat. Professional groups who counsel women should be willing to take some of that heat. ∎

As an employment counselor, I know how difficult it is to help people find jobs. And when the difficulty is complicated by the fact that my client is a woman, the result is often frustration for both of us. The educational and vocational deficiencies of women, produced by the widespread practice of sex discrimination in training and job opportunities, are frequently overshadowed by the far more serious consequences of women's low level of aspiration and their lack of motivation. These attitudes are not confined to disadvantaged women but are evidenced in a great majority of women in this country.

The need for increasing awareness of these internalized handicaps in women of upper and middle class backgrounds is emphasized by the organized feminist groups currently pushing for equality in jobs and education. But just as the women's movement is pretty much confined to the economically and educationally advantaged, the awareness of self-limiting role concepts has, for the most part, escaped disadvantaged women.

The unfortunate truth is that women tend to view employment as a job rather than a career. The word *job* implies an activity of a temporary nature—something to do until someone (a man) or something (the government) takes over the responsibility of economic support. Employment planning for other than short-term goals is thus met with a great deal of disinterest, if not actual resistance. This problem is exaggerated with the disadvantaged, due to the relative distance of even short-range goals.

Women are also reluctant to accept other than traditionally female jobs. Among advantaged women, this reluctance can be largely overcome by the incentive of status and salary. In the case of blue-collar jobs, while the higher salary is available as an incentive, there is no corresponding increase in status. In fact, there is usually social disapproval attached to women's working in what are considered men's jobs. Consequently, in spite of the large number of female-headed households, many families are forced to get along on the pittance a traditionally female job yields.

Finally, the vocational guidance afforded most women is limited, if not out-and-out biased. In the rare case of a woman who has career aspirations, demonstrated ability, and the willingness to enter a nonfemale occupation, she is usually discouraged by, of all people, her counselor. Of all the sex bias presently ingrained in the educational system, counselor bias is perhaps the most disheartening. If a woman cannot rely on her counselor for assistance in overcoming the environmental, institutional, and personal conflicts involved in her search for a meaningful occupational role, she often has no one else.

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Is the gray mare only a workhorse?

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As one examines the literature in counseling, it becomes evident that characteristics traditionally ascribed to females, such as warmth, empathy, and caring, are highly prized as essential characteristics of a counselor. Farson (1954) delineated this relationship between the characteristics of a woman and a counselor.

By and large in our American society, the male is expected to be clever, tough, strong, courageous, independent, more concerned with things than with people, whereas the female should be tender, gentle, loving, dependent, receptive, passive, more concerned with family and interpersonal relationships than with things. If we were to say which of these roles best matches the kind of behavior it is most important to embody as a counselor, we would no doubt agree that the female role comes closest. In this sense, the counselor is a woman [p. 222].

Consideration of contributions to counseling literature by female professionals does not parallel the importance placed on female characteristics in that same literature. A more accurate indicator of women's status and perceived

"A study by the Women's Commission at the University of Wisconsin pointed out that only 3 percent of the tenured faculty of the college of education were female."

importance in the profession is an examination of women's achievements and positions within the hierarchy of the profession; such an examination indicates that women have relatively little status in the profession. Few women have been recognized as pace setters or leaders, and although a large number of women have received their doctorates in counseling, very few have achieved recognition as counselor educators, deans of student affairs, or directors of counseling or student personnel services. Instead women are found at the bottom of the professional ladder, as staff counselors, school counselors, and part-time professionals. Women truly constitute the workhorses of the profession.

Thomas Wilson wrote in 1560:

Some will set the Cart before the horse, as thus. My mother and my father are both at home, as though the good man of the house did wear no breeches, or that the graie Mare were the better Horse. And what though it often so happeneth (God wot the more pitty) yet in speaking at the least, let us keepe a natural order, and set the man before the woman for manners sake [p. 121].

What "natural order" can explain the scarcity of females in the upper echelons of the profession? Advocates of the present system maintain that women have not been interested in professional status and that their record of achievement within the profession has borne witness to their noninterest. Actually, a review of the components of the counseling profession makes clear that women's lack of status is due not only to their noninterest but also to a lack of equal opportunity in employment.

COUNSELOR EDUCATION

Suddenly counselor education departments are questioning whether they should have at least one female on their staffs, and women are being actively sought for employment. This is a new phenomenon, however, coming only after the advent of militant campus women's

groups demanding representation on university faculties. Formerly women were the last to be hired and the first to be fired. In counselor education women were employed most often when the demand for counselor educators exceeded the supply; even then, they were always severely scrutinized as to the degree of their seriousness and commitment to the profession. In order to understand this bias against women in counselor education, one must be aware of the employment patterns of women in the university, particularly in the school of education.

Figures released by the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor (1969) reveal that 18 percent of all college instructors are women. Even more revealing is a study by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (Cass, 1971) that investigated the percentage of female faculty members at "prestige" universities. This study found that, generally, the higher the professional rank and the greater the institutional prestige of the university, the greater the likelihood of discrimination against women. Women comprise less than 10 percent of the faculty at prestige universities, and the majority of these women are found in junior, nontenured positions.

Colleges of education tend to be concerned about their status rankings within their respective universities, particularly in graduate areas such as counselor education. Since women are obviously low-prestige figures, it is not surprising that they are treated as second class citizens in the field of education. A study by the Women's Commission at the University of Wisconsin (1971) pointed out that only 3 percent of the tenured faculty of the college of education were female. The 1969 faculty directory of the University of Massachusetts reveals that only five women were among the faculty of 80 in education. An examination of the faculty directory of any college of edu-

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cation indicates that these figures are far from unique.

A perusal of counselor education faculties indicates that the trends found in universities and their colleges of education are present to the same degree in our profession. Women in guidance and counseling receive over 50 percent of the master's degrees and 22 percent of the doctoral degrees (Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, 1969), so the percentage of women employed as counselor educators does not begin to approximate the percentage of women "interested" in counseling. In addition, one finds a further segregation of the sexes of professors as one moves up the ladder of prestige rankings of universities. A study by Scott (1971) revealed that almost one-half of all doctoral students in counseling receive their degrees from 12 universities that are classified as prestigious. Since women are rarely employed as faculty members in prestigious universities, it becomes evident that doctoral students do not come into contact with women academic instructors in their graduate experiences. More importantly, the lack of the visible employment of female university professors must signify to female doctoral students that there is no place for women in the university structure in counselor education and that there is very little need to engage women as researchers in counselor education.

A critical factor excluding women from university faculties in counselor education is the present recruiting system: the informal grapevine. Under this system the majority of women are excluded from consideration in favor of candidates from the more prestigious institutions who have the right "pedigree." Since women, because of family considerations, are a highly immobile group, they do not always have the opportunity to enroll at the most prestigious universities or take out-of-town jobs. We as a profession must begin to understand how our present system of university patron-age tends to perpetuate the established group's interests and almost completely exclude the advancement of new groups, such as women and ethnic minority group members. At the same time we must work to eliminate the present restrictive system of university hiring practices, such as nepotism and grapevine recruitment, which nearly always favor the man's employment opportunities over the woman's.

STUDENT PERSONNEL SERVICES

If the vast majority of women who hold doctorates are not employed as counselor educators, the question is: Where do they seek employment at the university? In the past the prospective employee was typically told to try student personnel services or the counseling center. Recently, however, most of these traditional channels of female employment in student personnel services have begun closing.

During the past few years, there has been a major reorganization of student personnel services on campus after campus. When this takes place, most often a major problem is how to reassign the Dean of Women. She is left either as Director of Women's Education or she is given an undefined job as a general administrator. Rarely are women in our profession given a real functional responsibility [Greenleaf, 1968, p. 225].

There is very little opportunity for women to hold any important positions within the administrative services of the university, since the prevailing female stereotype mitigates against it.

Employment opportunities in university counseling services are more numerous for women with doctorates, since most agencies attempt to include a female counselor on staff. The pecking order in most counseling services, however, is male-dominated. This practice is quite extensive. Since university counseling centers are rarely designed as priority student services, there is a reluctance on the part of the counseling center to

initiate change in university administrative practices by putting women in key positions within counseling centers. An example of these practices is found by a perusal of the membership list of the Association of Counseling Center Directors (H. Rose, personal communication, March 25, 1971); it indicates that only 9 percent of counseling center directors are women. Further investigation of this list indicates that only 4 percent of the directors belonging to the association are women in universities enrolling 10,000 students or more.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE ADMINISTRATION

In examining female employment in leadership positions in the public schools, it appears that women are increasingly excluded from appointment to administrative positions. The most striking example of this exclusion is revealed in the National Education Association's (1964) figures on the decline of female principals from 1951 to 1967. In 1951 women composed 56 percent of the elementary school principals, 12 percent of the junior high principals, and 6 percent of the senior high principals. The number had declined to 22 percent in elementary schools in 1967 (National Education Association, 1968), 4 percent in junior high schools in 1965 (Rock & Hemphill, 1966), and 4 percent in senior high schools in 1962 (National Education Association, 1964).

Relating these facts to the question of employment of female directors of guidance, it is not surprising to find that the bias against employing women as administrators generalizes to the counseling profession. The bias against employing women as administrators in the public schools is very difficult to surmount, since women cannot effectively change their stereotype unless they are given some direct, functional responsibility.

GRADUATE STUDY

Females have always composed a majority or near majority of the graduate students in counseling. For the most part they have been docile and compliant in adjusting to a "woman's place" in graduate studies. Recent studies, however, reveal that women are indeed discontent with their place. The Women's Report of the University of Chicago (1970) indicates that female students experience discrimination in the following ways: (a) they find it more difficult to gain admittance to graduate school than male students with identical qualifications; (b) they receive proportionately fewer fellowships or other forms of assistance than do male students; (c) they face sexual discrimination in many day-to-day encounters; and (d) they receive significantly less perceived support from their professors for career plans.

Is subtle discrimination displayed toward females in graduate studies in counseling? Since counselor educators have traditionally used subjective standards as criterion measures for admission to graduate study, awarding of fellowships, and evaluation procedures, it is difficult to make a case for blatant discrimination toward women. Nevertheless, the fact that standards are so often subjective makes it easy to assume that counselor educators are influenced by society's attitudes and stereotypes concerning females. For instance, women are universally perceived as lacking the mature requirements needed for leadership positions, and this can influence educators' judgments. In counselor education male candidates are often preferred in doctoral admissions and fellowship awards. Instead of making a candid statement about this preference, educators give many rationalizations for it, ranging from the low priority placed on academic qualifications to the high priority placed on work experience. Unfortunately, most educators do not realize that when they use these priorities

they discriminate against women, since most women cannot gain significant work experience without proper professional qualifications.

Women do not go on to receive their doctoral degrees to the extent that men do. Is this due to women's personal career choices, or are women in education given the subtle message that they are not welcome in large numbers at the upper end of the educational ladder? The fact that there are few women professors visible and accessible to female graduate students must be considered a deterrent. Moreover, the fact that women perceive less support from their professors for their career plans is a critical factor. Unless counselor educators encourage female students and maintain high expectations toward their learning abilities, females will not develop positive self-concepts about their roles as professionals.

PROFESSIONAL PARTICIPATION

It is apparent that women's participation in leadership positions in professional affairs is limited. Until recently there were very few women officers, professional executives, journal editors, members of editorial boards, or committee chairmen. Even now some divisions of APGA have very limited women's participation. In particular, although 23 percent of the members of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision are female (J. D. Linden, personal communication, March 10, 1971), women are underrepresented in the activities of this division. Daley (1972) points out that in 50 years of existence, only one woman has served as president of APGA [now two, with current President Donna Chiles—ED.] and 25 as divisional presidents (13 as president of NVGA). No women have served as president of ACES. Furthermore, for 1971–72, there were only two women serving as chairmen of ACES committees; one was chairman of the ACES Commission on Women.

OPENING THE DOORS

Recent research (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970; Eyde, 1970; Thomas & Stewart, 1971) indicates that the helping professions are not exempt from harboring societal prejudices, including biases toward women. Women's participation in the counseling profession has, in fact, been limited in accordance with society's traditional concept of the role of women. As women have been restricted to auxiliary roles in society, they have also been restricted to subsidiary roles within the counseling profession.

Today women are not content to have their professional lives structured by others; they are demanding equality in professional opportunities and advancement. If we as a profession are going to be in the forefront of this movement—as we should be—we must become aware of the attitudes and circumstances that constrict women's participation. Moreover, we must make changes in the structure and practices of the counseling profession that will provide for the full anticipation of women's needs. Our program should be fivefold.

- We must raise the career aspirations of women counselors.

- We must provide women counselors with a realistic understanding of the organization of the profession.

- We must provide graduate students with realistic career guidance.

- We must provide women with professional training in administration and supervision of guidance programs.

- We must provide equal employment opportunity at all levels.

Raising Career Aspirations

What women need to hear most is that there is room for them at all levels of the profession. Since they have been restricted to the bottom of the professional ladder, women counselors need encour-

agement if they are to raise their aspirations. Educators must therefore actively seek and encourage female graduate students to maximize their contributions to the profession.

Providing Organizational Understanding

Since women's role has traditionally been limited to a nonpromotional place in the hierarchy, the female professional has little knowledge of the reward system, the political system, and the hierarchical and organizational system of the profession. Particularly at the doctoral level it is important for women to gain a thorough understanding of executive leadership skills and the demands of counselor education and student personnel administration so they can relate their training and job experiences to the realities of the professional marketplace.

Career Guidance for Graduate Students

Most of the career guidance programs available for women are inappropriate for the career problems faced by today's young professional women. Even in graduate school, where one might expect a more sophisticated approach to career decision making, one finds that female counseling students are still given irrelevant and meaningless career guidance from members of our profession who still cling to traditional 19th century female role expectations. Instead of ignoring the career problems of female graduate students, we should be listening to our students' needs and leading the way in developing new programs of career guidance that consider the changing role of women in counseling and the rapidly increasing opportunities for women in general in the world of work.

Administrative and Supervisory Training

Since women are perceived as being poor administrators and managers, they are rarely given on-the-job training in administrative skills. It is therefore particularly important for women, as well as minority group members, to receive their administrative and executive training in their professional training programs. Women in counseling can be administrators, supervisors, directors, and chairmen of academic departments, but they must receive the necessary training and experience somewhere. If they receive it in their graduate programs, they will undertake a wider diversity of positions, since their background will give them the confidence needed to undertake the jobs. They will be able to point to relevant experiences and training to indicate that they are prepared to assume executive and supervisory functions. A student personnel or counselor education program not providing this training is denying women a chance for equal opportunity in professional advancement.

Equal Employment Opportunity

The profession must be cognizant of the present sex role biases and stereotypes that tend to prescribe women's present form of participation in counseling. To integrate women into all levels of the profession, we must begin to recruit and encourage talented women to enroll in doctoral programs and undertake executive positions. We must develop more flexible graduate programs, ones that reflect women's demands and needs. We must develop for women special counseling and career programs that relate to the issues of professional women. We must recruit qualified women for positions in counselor education, student personnel services, and administration and supervision. We must develop for girls new career programs that reflect the changing role of women in the world. We must develop more equitable systems of recruitment and provide better publicity about job opportunities. And we must strive to include more women in the executive offices of our profession.

For the immediate future, a conscious effort must be made in the counseling profession to include women and respect

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their professionalism. The challenge, however, is to develop the full potential of *all* counseling professionals. ◼

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Two years ago I was looking for a new position in counselor education. At 31, with a doctorate, six years of college teaching experience, three years of public school work, and a Ford Foundation internship in Washington, I believed that I would be sought after by a number of institutions of higher education.

But I had one tremendous handicap: my sex.

At each interview I asked the question, "How do you feel about hiring a woman?" The responses:

"Oh, we *want* a woman; we need one on our staff."

"Well, we already have two women, so we don't need any more."

"We have too many on our staff already."

But the response that seemed to sum up the feelings of most of the male interviewers was given by the chairman of one all-male department.

"It's very risky."

What are those risks? There was the office mate who barely spoke to me for a month because he was fearful that I "might play sex games." There was the chairman who worried about the problems created because men can decide to go out and get a beer while a woman is offended if she doesn't get a specific invitation. There is the etiquette problem: "If you were a man, I would shake your hand. Since you're a woman, do I have to give you a hug?"

But the most common reasons given for not hiring a woman are that she might get married or have a baby. (Fortunately, men in counselor education lead celibate lives, so no family influences can affect their functioning.)

Thus, while the literature and convention programs talk of injustices, oversights, and cultural limitations imposed by illogical concepts, the hiring practices of those advocating the revolution of social roles is absurdly traditional. It appears that professing what others should do is a lot simpler than doing it. How many employers wouldn't welcome a self-assured, well-educated, straight-talking, logical, independent male? Would they welcome a similarly qualified woman? Look at the staffs of the counselor education departments to find the answer.

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Sexism and racism: one battle to fight

Congresswoman SHIRLEY CHISHOLM

*"Top policy-making positions
in the American establishment
remain in the hands of white
males who are not responsive
to the needs of the poor,
of minorities, or of women."*

It is obvious to me that we black Americans can no longer look on our struggle for full participation in American society as one that is isolated from that of other second class groups. Discrimination against blacks because of the color of their skin is no more—or less—anathema to basic civil rights than is discrimination against groups because of their religion, creed, sex, or sexual orientation. When discrimination is at work, it is because those who hold power are creating petty and arbitrary barriers for the purpose of denying equal participation to those who, if allowed to compete freely within the system, would threaten the status of the power holders.

More Americans participating fully in our society, more Americans allowed to compete for top policy-making roles in government, business, and industry, would make it more difficult for the mediocre men—who have wrecked our economy, involved us in civil wars abroad, and divided us at home—to hold onto their power by limiting the corps of potential competitors.

ROLE POWER

The device used to limit competition is that of assigning different roles to the different groups in society. White males have assigned to themselves such roles as

president of the United States, corporate executive, industrialist, doctor, lawyer, and university professor. They have assigned to white women such roles as housewife, secretary, PTA chairman, and schoolteacher. Black women can now be schoolteachers, too, but they are most prominently assigned to such domestic roles as maid, cook, waitress, and baby-sitter. Black men are thought to be good porters, bus drivers, and sanitation men.

These are roles that have been ingrained into the minds of all of us, and any attempt on the part of white women, black women, or black men to rise above their particular role is looked on with apprehension by the white males who form the establishment. All too often the potential for full intellectual development and goal realization on the part of ethnic minorities and women is suppressed by white males' denying these groups the appropriate job training and educational opportunity necessary to assume a role that white males consider to be their domain.

I do not mean to suggest that there is anything degrading about work as a domestic, a clerk, a teacher, or anything else that is honest and satisfying; hard work at any occupation can be fulfilling and rewarding. But I do object to assigning certain roles to particular groups on the basis of sex and color when there is no generic reason for doing so. And I resent the efforts of white males to limit competition for the more prestigious and higher paying occupations.

Blacks, Spanish-speaking Americans, and Indians have long objected to the exclusiveness of the establishment. Today women are voicing their objections too, and statistics tell us why. Among all employed American women, 82 percent are clerks, saleswomen, factory workers, farm workers, or in service occupations. Six percent are medical and health workers, college teachers, or other professional and technical workers. Just 5 percent are managers, officials, or pro-

prietors. If women are, as the U.S. Department of Labor has concluded, more reliable on the job and less frequently absent from work than men, what is the reason for their preponderant employment at the lower level positions and pay scales? Quite simply, it is discrimination.

Women are sick and tired of being told, "See how far you've come? You've come a long way, baby." If that's so, then why is it that of 10,000 civil service employees in jobs paying $26,000 a year or better only about 150 are women? Why is it that fewer than 1 percent of federal policy-making positions are held by women?

The truth of the matter is that the top policy-making positions in the American establishment remain in the hands of white males who are not responsive to the needs of the poor, of minorities, or of women. And we are not in a position to regulate their actions and inactions—their failure to control inflation and unemployment, their failure to respond to the call of consumers for better products at nonexorbitant costs—because regular citizens such as you and I have no power to control or replace them as long as they deny the great majority of Americans the opportunity to compete freely in our society.

Yet there is hope for oppressed groups—if we unite and challenge the forces that now hold the power in our country. This is an effort that requires these groups—minorities, women, consumers—to come together and demand representation in the high councils of the establishment, and it also requires that we forget about role playing and seek to allow persons to engage in work suited to their intellectual and physical abilities.

JOINING FORCES

Blacks must realize that there are other groups who face discrimination and who, for reasons of their own self-interest, are

willing to join forces in breaking down petty and arbitrary barriers against fully productive careers within the mainstream of American life. This is why I have long spoken out in favor of coalition politics, and it is why I have been disturbed that some persons do not understand the wisdom of joint action.

Black women surely know the value of such action. We face discrimination based on both racism and sexism. And it is important for us to be involved in both black and women's liberation.

Critics of this position suggest that we should first become liberated as a people. I say there is no need to fight two different battles; we should fight both at the same time. There is an argument that women's lib is a white woman's thing and that the role to which white women have been assigned should not concern black women. Nothing, in my view, could be further from the truth, since the proponents of "black liberation only" envision that black women will someday play the same kind of role that white women now play: that of the American woman.

Cheryl Clark of the *New York Amsterdam News* has attempted to define the "American woman." She says, "A man comes along and chooses a woman he'll support in exchange for her having and raising kids, keeping house, cooking, shopping, being faithful, tryin' to be halfway attractive, and whatever else."

Such a role does not take into consideration either the needs or the talents of a woman, particularly the present-day black woman. When we consider the fact that 29 percent of black households are headed by women, we cannot expect these women to fit into this definition of the American woman. When we consider the fact that many other black and white women have to work in order to help their husbands with the bills, we cannot expect them to fit the definition either. When we honestly admit that some women are assertive and aggressive, we cannot expect these women to resign themselves to being housewives—not without their being frustrated in that capacity.

The women's movement seeks to present an alternative to the "American woman," one I feel is much more conducive to the peculiar nature and needs of the black woman.

I strongly take issue with those persons who say that it is time for black women to step back and let black men take the lead. I certainly do not object to black men taking the lead in our struggle for equal rights in America. Yet I believe that we should not place emphasis on black women stepping back; we should rather emphasize the need for black men to step ahead. We cannot afford to have any of our people stepping back!

Neither do I look on the struggle for equal rights as an all-black thing. Every American who believes in liberty and justice for all must join the struggle for equal rights for blacks and Indians, Puerto Ricans and Chicanos, and women. Progressive Americans should join in the struggle to end *all* forms of discrimination in America and to end the narrow-minded approach of assigning stereotypic roles to particular groups. Human beings cannot be assigned so easily, since we are unique in our individual abilities and characters. Liberation in America must therefore transcend ending discrimination against a particular race. It must entail ending discrimination because of sex, origin, and religion as well.

We must work to create a climate in which it will not be unusual or novel for a black or an Indian or a woman to run for a national office or advance to a high executive position. We must work to create a climate in which Americans are allowed to move up in the system solely on the basis of their intellect, perseverance, and physical ability. ∎

I was married for a brief time when I was younger, but I suffered from terrible pressures to have a family, which I did not want. That was a marriage from pressure, even though I did not know I was bowing to pressure. After 11 years of single living, in which I was quite happy, I remarried. I am irked that being married means I lose some of my legal individuality, but this really has nothing to do with my *actual* individuality. I always felt that it was okay for me to be whatever I was, but I frequently tried to hide what I was because I knew it would not be acceptable.

Being married again has brought its frustrations. For instance, in Texas I was informed that I could not have a charge account in my own name. Accounts I had with national organizations suddenly were no longer valid; my husband had to have the account now! I determined not to give in, and I finally got my accounts, but with a great deal of effort on my part and quite a bit of hostility from the organizations involved.

The subtle change in people's attitudes toward me since I remarried has been confusing but interesting. I am more acceptable to my family, and I get that special look from people that says, "Wow! You have a husband and a career too!" I feel only that I have a full life, which happens to include being married.

The man I am married to is exceptional. He is not desexed by my desire to fulfill myself in ways other than through him. We have a clear understanding of what individuality means to us. Yet when others view this, they frequently see our marriage as cold and businesslike—"not really a marriage." For example, a very painful decision was made by both of us when my husband's job required that he move 1,400 miles away while I finished my doctorate. We had to live separately for one year in order for each of us to pursue our interests and prepare ourselves for the future we had planned. I was astonished to learn that some of my fellow students, particularly women, saw my agreeing to this arrangement as meaning that I did not care about him. The assumption seemed to be that my husband would prefer that I drop what I was doing and follow him. He had no such preference, although both of us would have preferred to be together.

Life style counseling for a reluctant leisure class

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*"We find that most women have
time, energy, and knowledge
beyond what is needed for their
essential responsibilities."*

Women don't fit! Educational and vocational counselors have recognized for some time that women don't fit traditional theories of career development. In order to use traditional career development theory in counseling women, the child-rearing and home-oriented activities that most women pursue are regarded as a "career." Today we have a variation of the traditional pattern in that women often develop two careers, one oriented toward family and home and the other—either simultaneously or sequentially, as the first decreases in emphasis—oriented toward nondomestic involvement and economic productivity. But there is still a need to stretch and twist existing theories to allow for the deviation. And women just don't fit.

One reason many modern American middle class married women don't fit into traditional theories of educational and vocational development may be that they don't fit into the traditional cultural context of work. These women are in many respects members of a leisure class, a group functioning outside the existing systems of economic capitalism and the

work ethic. And women in their middle years with leisure foreshadow the dilemma to be faced by more and more individuals in our culture in the future. This new concern requires new concepts and new emphases throughout the social framework, including theories of counseling and vocational development.

The modern American middle class married woman may wish to deny that she is a member of a leisure class. It is true that she works hard in the sense that she expends energy and effort and is useful within her home and community. But ultimately we find that most women have time, energy, and knowledge beyond what is needed for their essential responsibilities. They must make a choice about what to do with these and other potential personal resources. This points to at least one definition of leisure: time that allows for the element of choice and options (de Grazia, 1942). The alternative uses of leisure need to be explored and developed with thought and consideration equal to that given to sound career development.

ALTERNATE LIFE STYLES

Thus we find many women in their middle years facing decreasing home and family responsibilities. They are not economically compelled to seek employment, and many decide, for reasons ranging from prior personal commitments to a closed job market, not to pursue a second, nondomestic career. Even those who do opt for paid employment often find, as do many men, that this avenue is something less than an unlimited opportunity for self-actualization. Volunteer activities often seem fragmented, meaningless, unfulfilling in any personal sense. Returning to school is popular, as continuing education programs for women have demonstrated, but is temporary and often incomplete. The consequences of doing nothing are bleak and often psychologically unhealthy. What is being sought is an alternate life style, one providing integration, structure, meaning, and opportunity for growth, relationships, and creativity.

Life style is a term describing the concept of how behaviors relate to basic values and purposes. A life style is an overall way of looking at the world, at the physical environment, at concepts and ideas, at people and social interaction, and at oneself. It is integrating, and a need for integration becomes paramount when individuals are faced with choices about activities. A life style springs from within the self rather than from roles defined by others.

Life styles are generally labeled and described with reference to the basic values underlying their patterns. Etzioni (1971) divides life styles into four categories: intellectual, hedonistic, social, and political. Spranger (1928), in the theory that led to the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, suggests six types: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, political, social, and religious. Super and Crites (1962) summarize various studies of values and note seven classifications: scientific-theoretical, social welfare, literary, material, systematic, contact, and aesthetic. Ginzberg (1966) describes the life styles of educated women as being individualistic, aesthetic, political, and communal. Goldman (1965) proposes four life styles appropriate for women with leisure: contemplative, political, voluntary service, and arts patron. Also relevant are the basic existential dimensions discussed by Bugental (1965) that concern meaning, power, relatedness, and responsibility, as are the personality types proposed by Holland (1966)—realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional.

Whatever the terminology, basic values may be lived out in a multitude of settings and activities. To the extent that values are actualized, individuals feel satisfied and self-fulfilling. People who do things in consonance with what they believe to be valuable and significant are

those who feel whole and integrated. This is true of activities related to careers and employment, as most career development theories have recognized. It is true of home and family tasks and relationships, as theories of family relations and home management have acknowledged. It is also valid to expect that leisure activities—volunteer and community undertakings, education for personal growth, and development of full potential, recreation, and play—will be most satisfying when they are pursued in line with an individual's basic values.

People do not choose their basic values, at least not in any simple manner. Values develop during a lifetime as a consequence of childhood training, early and later experiences, intellectual awareness, emotional responses, and physical endowment. Our primary counseling concern with adults is that individuals should first become aware of their own value orientation. But adults can choose their life styles when they have freedom for self-actualization. Alternatives may exist within the home, in educational settings, in traditional employment and occupations, in voluntary activities, or in recreational pleasures. The types of mental and physical activities one engages in, the patterns of human relationships and self-attitude, the uses of personal resources—including time and energy—are likely to vary as basic values vary. A second counseling goal, therefore, is to facilitate choices that reflect the value orientation of the individual and become expressions of a unique life style.

THE RETREAT PROJECT

An exploratory project was designed by the Continuing Education Guidance Center of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro to begin to develop and evaluate the alternate life style concept for counseling mature women with leisure. Two-day conferences were held for 35 women at a rustic residential retreat called Chinqua-Penn. Invitations were sent to women in the local community known to the project directors to be extensively and consistently involved in leisure activities relevant to a specific life style.

The participants ranged in age from 25 to 61. All but three were currently married, and only four had no children. Thirty-three were white and two black, and all were from essentially upper middle class social environments. The women were provided in advance with discussion questions and were requested to contribute to project goals rather than expect personal benefits. (However, satisfaction with the experience was a bonus reported by nearly all participants.)

Organization and Format

There were four discussion groups; each group contained approximately nine women and two leaders and each focused on a different life style. Sessions were led by the project director, a staff assistant at the Continuing Education Guidance Center. This author was an assistant leader but primarily an observer of the group process and the discussion content. Other Center staff members were present as participant-observers in each group; each of these women was personally identified with the life style under discussion in her group. All sessions were recorded on tape. Written information was requested on several questions, and test results were also part of the data acquired. Early evaluation of the sessions involved the three Center staff members during and immediately following the two-day conferences; later and more intensive analysis of the information gained was undertaken by the project director in planning further workshops for Center clients and by this writer in developing new research directions.

It was originally planned that each of the groups would follow a standard discussion format. This format was designed to elicit information about the life styles the invited participants were actually

expressing and the variables associated with them, in the hope that this knowledge would lead to concepts that would be useful in the guidance and counseling of other women. Pilot work with a group of 40 Center clients had previously suggested the validity of the alternate or leisure life style idea, but it had also pointed up the need for specific information about the style implementation. The Chinqua-Penn participants were therefore regarded as models whose past and present behavior would have significance in the development of this counseling approach.

Daily Program

The intended discussion format was actually followed by three groups and was modified slightly with respect to timing for the fourth. Sessions began at 9:30 a.m., after residential arrangements were completed. Afternoon discussions the first day ran from 1:30 to 5:00 p.m. Breaks were planned, during which participants were encouraged to walk, visit with each other and engage in relaxed conversation, or simply seek solitude in the natural setting of the retreat. The major discussion of the first day involved (a) sharing experiences in the life style, (b) relating early memories of such experiences, and (c) considering past models and what had influenced the learning of the life style. An evening session was held from 7:30 to 9:30 in the sitting room of the residential cabin. This session was more casual, focusing on the topic of resources and opportunities, and it tended to terminate in general conversation and socializing. After breakfast the second day, discussion from 9:00 a.m. to noon centered around value concepts and patterns and the problems and conflicts relating to life style implementation. After lunch an outdoor lawn circle was established. It lasted approximately an hour, permitting closure on the sessions and facilitating farewells for members, who had developed considerable intimacy and group identity.

The Life Style Concepts

The key life style concepts used in this investigation were derived essentially from the ideas presented by Goldman (1965). She suggested four directions for women seeking fulfillment and productive satisfaction in socially useful but nonreimbursed leisure activities. Each of the four reflects a basic value that is the key element, but not the only element, in the individual's background and living pattern. The labels we gave these four directions vary somewhat from Goldman's choices and in some cases reflect slightly different concepts.

We defined the four groups as Theoretical, Influential, Aesthetic, and Social. The basic value for the Theoretical group is truth or meaning, with ideas and verbal concepts highly significant. The Influential style emphasizes power, seeking to influence and accomplish goals through political and management activity. Aesthetic individuals value beauty, harmony, and form; included in this concept are expressive and appreciative activities in the arts and other areas. The Social concern is with human relationships and needs; behavior tends to be responsive to people on a direct service basis. Through discussions and other analyses these four life styles were found to exhibit some interesting differences in background, human relationships, activities of choice, use of resources (including education), and level of self-awareness and self-acceptance.

How the Groups Worked

The Theoretical life style group was concerned with ideas, reading, and writing. Most tended to pursue activities alone, although they greatly welcomed the opportunity to talk to other women with similar interests. Educational undertakings and knowledge had high priority, often for their own sake rather than for practical benefit. Although most of the group were homemakers and mothers, several who were employed part or full

time were in occupations consistent with their life style. Most of the women stressed the great importance to them of past models, other persons who had taught them the values they embraced. This was probably the group most intrigued by the project, since the ideas being explored whetted their personal curiosities.

The Influential life style group was highly energetic, frequently relating to one another in a political manner. The women in this group tended to focus on goals, problem solving, and outcomes. Planning and management were stressed. Discussions tended to be analytical, many solutions being proposed to problems that were presented. This group felt more conflict between their life style preference and the traditional feminine role they were expected to play. In particular, most expressed a feeling of responsibility about rearing children that other groups did not share. Resource use tended to be practical rather than theoretical. This group continued to meet after the two-day conferences and became the core of an action committee of their local YWCA; they are now stimulating many community projects.

The Aesthetic life style was expressed by participants through a variety of activities: visual arts, drama, music, poetry. They also engaged in extensive athletic activity. The members of the Aesthetic group tended to relate to each other on an "appreciative" basis and sought to remain together during breaks. (In contrast, Influential women tended to seek solitude, perhaps as a rest from the more intensive type of interaction in which they engaged.) The Aesthetic group stressed that early memories and experiences were consistent with their present style. Their concerns generally were much more immediate and serene, though no less deep, than those of the Theoretical and Influential women.

The Social life style presented some interesting variations from the other three. It was a more difficult group to assemble, and once established, its members appeared to be less committed to the conference project than the other groups. Most felt they could not spend a night away from their families, so the sessions were scheduled for daytime only. During discussions, the group was less verbal about their experiences and activities, permitting full coverage of all prearranged discussion questions even with the more limited time. These women were found to be far less introspective than the other groups and much more socially responsive or outer directed. They tended to respond directly and pragmatically to needs and requests. Activities they engaged in tended to be short term, education was given less emphasis, and social relationships and structure were of considerable significance. These women most clearly conveyed the traditional feminine values of our culture and engaged in traditional feminine responsibilities.

It would be misleading to suggest that the participants were defined simply by the life style label by which they were identified. Each woman actually represented a unique balance of all four values and also incorporated elements of other values that may be significant—particularly the religious value. The possibility of pursuing a blended life style balancing several of the values was suggested. Other personal dimensions also were apparent, such as variation in achievement or energy level, in active and passive modes of involvement, in sociability, and in autonomy.

LIFE STYLE COUNSELING FOR LEISURE

We believe that the concept of alternate life style is valid in exploring activities that individuals might choose in leisure. Our early investigations were loose and preliminary; additional research of a more controlled nature is now being planned. We want to assess the use of testing and other exercises to develop awareness of basic values, the role of past and present

variables in relation to these concepts, the relationship of educational experiences to the implementation of life styles, community outlets and resources for alternative patterns, and the significance of the life style choice to other areas of responsibility and human interaction.

The techniques and theories appropriate to counseling for life style rather than for a career are not yet clear. Although we may be able to borrow from traditional approaches, this type of counseling must focus much more on value orientations and life purposes than occupational guidance has in the past. Developing self-awareness and an understanding of personal values has often very quickly followed an exposure to the ideas and terms available, particularly among psychologically stable individuals. Emotional reactions may emerge when conflicts exist between personal preferences and cultural norms or attitudes of significant others, and these reactions must be worked through. Once clarified and accepted, personal values may be refined and lived out within a life style integrating many activities that are open to choice. Guidance in trial settings can be useful as the individual "tries on" the appropriate pattern and learns how to use it for decision making.

The life style, which is a relatively stable but flexible concept, provides a framework for choices throughout a life-span. Such a constant framework is essential for women because they face considerable variation in commitment and responsibility over time. And such a concept, with its focus on the self and its source within the individual rather than from others, promotes an acceptance of self-responsibility. In using this concept the counselor assists each client in learning how to make choices whenever she is confronted with them rather than in selecting a single course of action.

It has been our experience in counseling mature women that the life style counseling approach brings considerable clarification and satisfaction to clients who have previously felt themselves floundering and drifting from one involvement to another. The concept can bring a unifying meaning to paid jobs, volunteer work, home and family patterns, education, recreation—whatever endeavor is undertaken. And in preliminary explorations with men, the concept has also demonstrated relevance to their areas of leisure and choice.

We feel that "life style" can definitely provide a framework for the alternatives that all individuals with leisure—and therefore with choice—may pursue increasingly during the next century. Essential elements for human living, for men and for women, for youth and for the aged, are meaning, significance, identity, integration. Vocational and educational counseling must become increasingly concerned with adults making choices about their broadest "vocation," the commitment and purpose of their *whole person*. We believe that life style development will be of major concern in American society during the 21st century. And today's women may presently be developing the models for a growing leisure class. ∎

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For God's sake, what do those women want?

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"Of course, you were just trying to make sure she was being 'realistic' in her choice—that this was what she really wanted to do— but she got the message."

"Momism," you conclude. "Another sad case."

You are a counselor. You feel sure you know the cause of the problem described by the young boy facing you. It is Momism. Johnny is dependent. He has never made his own decisions; his mother has made them for him. He has never had a real test of himself; he has never needed to. His mother has protected him, taken care of his needs, even anticipated his needs, so he never really knew he had any. Oh, sure, he has had differences of opinion with Mom. He even tried to exert his own individuality sometimes; he occasionally tried to make his own decisions. But somehow it just proved what his mother had led him to expect: She knew best; her way was right. Soon Johnny accepted it. He doesn't even feel very strongly about it now. In fact, he doesn't feel very strongly about anything now. He cannot decide what he really wants to do— maybe law, maybe medicine, maybe engineering. Anyway, Mom believes it should be one of the professions.

Before you file away another sad case history, ask yourself a question: Counselor, did you help put Johnny in that chair? Were you the counselor who

talked with Johnny's mother some 25 years before, when she was in high school? Were you the one who helped her come to the "realistic" decision she made, the decision to prepare herself for her big goal, her real goal—that of being wife and mother? Were you the one who questioned her so persistently and intently when she tried to take calculus and physics? Of course, you were just trying to make sure she was being "realistic" in her choice—that this was what she really wanted to do—but she got the message. After all, girls aren't really supposed to want to take calculus and physics. Were you there when she was questioning who she was and what she was and where she was going? Weren't you both relieved when she decided that what she really wanted to do was to be a wife and mother?

VICARIOUS SELFHOOD

Perhaps you walked away from that counseling session 25 years ago with the feeling that you had really accomplished something. You had really provided guidance for another person. Would you have been so pleased if one of your male students had decided to accept vicarious glory and prestige? Would vicarious selfhood have been enough for him? What happens to a bright, capable person—man or women—who must find his meaning in life by living through others and for others instead of with others? If the female self is defined in terms of motherhood and the ultimate meaning in life is assumed to reside in being a "good" mother, can you, as a counselor, understand how much energy will be put into being "the best mother there is"? Can you understand how the resentment of not being truly fulfilled through your children gets converted into overconcern for the child—a *smothering* of him? Sometimes a most repressive kind of smothering occurs, so that one wonders to what degree guilt is being repressed.

As a counselor concerned with the development of independent human beings, you should know that a good mother works herself out of that role. The child of such a mother becomes more and more independent and capable of governing his own life. But what happens to the woman who has vested her whole self into one role, that of the consummate mother? This woman may panic as she finds she is needed less and less by her child. She may be tempted to find subtle ways to prove that she is really needed after all, that Johnny isn't old enough yet to make his own decisions. The child of this mother never will be. And he will be a disappointment to her as she recalls her great plans for him.

Johnny's father is probably not too happy either. He comes home at night exhausted from his contact with the world, and he may be seeking reprieve from his interaction with men in his job. His wife should be aware of this and should be a source of understanding. But his wife lives *through* him, remember. Her experience in the world, her world itself, is reflected through his position. She seeks knowledge of their world—the one they share together: his world. "What went on today, dear?" really means, "Talk to me. Tell me something interesting. Tell me something to stimulate this mind, which has been turned off all day. Tell me something that will quiet this longing to share human experiences with another. Let me know that I am worth something—I really can't see myself in perspective anymore. Remember, my self-worth is tied to you. Let me know—somehow, someway—that I am still loved."

"Did you have lunch with your secretary again today, dear?"

Living in another person's life is hard.

VALUES

"But," you, the counselor, protest, "I do not choose the goals for my clients. Most of my women students want this

role. They don't want to be the hard, bitter, undersexed, underprivileged, unmarried, career girl tycoons. They want to get married and have babies instead." But what are you really saying, counselor? Patterson (1966) warned that, like it or not, the counselor's values influence the client. In your training to be a counselor, you were careful to examine such things as your attitudes and values about sex and careful to avoid imposing your values on the client. How long has it been since you evaluated your attitudes about women? Were they developed—without examination—in your own relationships to your mother, sister, spouse, daughter? If Mother was happy as a homemaker, shouldn't all women be? Or could it be that Mother would rather have died than let her child know she wasn't all that happy? She did wish for something more, but everything and everyone else said she *should* be happy. And can so many people be wrong?

Listen, counselor, and read. Listen to the angry voices in Toni Cade's *The Black Woman* (1970) and in Robin Morgan's *Sisterhood Is Powerful* (1970). Can you understand the mother who tried to give her children away—first to her ex-husband, who would not take them because he could not simultaneously work and care for them, and then to the court? You can understand anger in terms of frustration and resentment. Can you understand the frustration and resentment of this mother as she tried to care for her children and support them on a salary lower than a man's? And this frustration was, in part, due to society's refusal to recognize that all women who work are not working only to buy a few frilly "extras" or to escape the boredom of card parties (Clark, 1970). Over one-third of the women who work are single, widowed, or divorced, often supporting parents or children (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1969).

And, counselor, listen to the women who say they are tired of being treated as things, as objects, as mere possessions purchased not through money but through ritualized promises. They are tired of being shown off and paraded to the world as symbols of a man's prestige and position. They are tired of the sexually oriented sell that tells them their worth depends on their youth, on the size of their bosoms, on their being deodorized, dehaired, perfumed, clothed, or not clothed, as demanded. No wonder they want to burn their bras. Bras hide individuality, mask characteristics that are part of women's physical selves; bras make any woman a perfectly shaped 36C and are symbols of the distortions and stereotypes that become substitutes for direct experience in a society of masks and false moonlight.

Can you as a counselor see beneath such masks? Can you really hear someone crying for help, searching for selfhood, searching for some way of knowing who she is and what she is as a person? Listen to the message in the titles of books by women—*The Female Eunuch* (Greer, 1971), *The Second Sex* (de Beauvoir, 1961), *Up Against the Wall, Mother . . .* (Adams & Briscoe, 1971). Attend to the parallels pointed out so aptly by Betty Friedan (1963) between the infantile behaviors of the passive, lethargic, constantly tired, constantly bitching wife "who doesn't know what's wrong, but knows that something is" and the behaviors of men in German concentration camps. Consider the characteristics of men who have been systematically and deliberately dehumanized as described by Frankl (1963) and Bettelheim (1960) before you declare that women are *naturally* passive, *naturally* dependent; before you decide that women *like* to be dependent, *want* to stay that way, *want* to stay home. Could it be that they have been childlike and dependent so long that they are frightened to assert their independence?

Examine your attitudes in light of Margaret Mead's *Male and Female*

(1955), which indicates that the behaviors we so rigidly label *masculine* or *feminine* are not always the same in other cultures; indeed, masculine and feminine roles are defined in ways diametrically opposite from ours in other societies.

WHOLE PEOPLE

Being a wife and mother is not necessarily assuming an outmoded role; however, in a society characterized by manifold opportunities for individual development, the role of wife and mother may not be enough. The O'Neils (1972) have pointed out that a truly satisfying marriage requires two whole people, each living his own life. They see such a marriage as involving people who share a relationship with each other, not two people who share one life—the husband's—in the smother love of "togetherness" that was flaunted as the ideal by the magazines of the '50's.

The role of wife and mother may have been sufficient once, when a new child was born every year and the washing took two days a week with the ironing taking the remaining three. Then, motherhood may have been a full-time job. But the values of society change in relationship to its needs. A few years ago women were bombarded by the image of motherhood, and aggressive women were presented as the major villains in American life. They stalked about on stage and screen performing a variety of more or less bloody castrations. A few years from now, however, in the face of the concern for overpopulation, it may not be possible—or even permissible—for the majority of women to assume the role of mother. And technology has made the "real work" of the "little woman" in her apron as meaningless as the "chores" that were once performed by men. It is not difficult to see why an individual would be hard pressed to find enough meaning in housework for the development of a self-identity, much less for any kind of self-fulfillment. Johnny's mother, in working harder but doing less and less, had nothing else to do but live his life for him.

Few counselors would apply Freudian theory in its orthodox form to 20th-century America. The influence of the culture in which Freud lived is recognized, and his theory has been tempered to fit a less cloistered and less severely regulated world. Yet we, as counselors, are too often still trying to explain the cries from women as penis envy, asking them to learn to accept their critical lack, fold their hands, and step back quietly— "Remember, you're a little lady, and nobody likes a tomboy"—into the preordained shadows and the muted atmosphere of submission. ∎

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A framework for counseling women

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"The goal is to develop human beings who are free to act in ways that are appropriate to their interests and their values—not their sex."

Many adult women have secret dreams they have harbored but never expressed, vague feelings about wanting to do something but not knowing what, frustrations about their inability to advance in their fields, and dissatisfactions with their prescribed roles. But women have been limited in their decision-making possibilities because of societal limitations on their dreaming and because of the difficulties in implementing dreams that include an achievement component.

Through strategies combining counseling, guidance, and social activism, counselors can be part of a liberating force that will enable women to expand their horizons and implement their dreams.

THE DECISION-MAKING FRAMEWORK

All of us fantasize and explore the future. Some of our dreams turn into reality; others fade away. Tiedeman and O'Hara (1963) developed a decision-making paradigm in which decisions are

viewed as having two major stages: anticipation and implementation. During the anticipation stage, one fantasizes, role plays, dreams; in short, explores. Such exploring and fantasizing are as common for the mature woman reentering the labor market as they are for the kindergarten girl playing house, hospital, or school. As the anticipatory stage unfolds, the individual begins to consider numerous alternatives, then stabilizes her thinking on one of the alternatives. At this point the decision crystallizes and a choice is made.

The second stage requires implementing the fantasized choice. It begins when one enters the new system; that is, enrolls in graduate school, begins a new job, sees a divorce lawyer, moves to a new town. After induction into this new system, the individual gains a sense of herself in her new role, leading to integration.

The counselor's problem becomes apparent when one looks at the decision-making process in relation to women. The anticipation stage sets the parameters of choice for women. It is no surprise to discover that women's vocational decisions are limited, as evidenced by the restricted areas in which they dream. We know that children stereotype occupations by sex (Schlossberg & Goodman, 1972b). Girls see themselves as nurses and teachers, while boys see themselves as mechanics and doctors. If young children's horizons are restricted to certain fields, if young children see mothers as cooks, cleaners, and nurses, and fathers as workers, doers, and providers, we can certainly see why vocational decisions would be limited. Thus, the counselor's first task is to expand horizons, to open up the whole world—not just part of it.

Now to implementation. One can dream of being a chemist—yet only 10 percent of all chemists are women. One can dream of being a dentist—yet only 2 percent of all dentists are women. One can dream of being a certified public accountant—yet only 2 percent of all certified public accountants are women. One can dream of being a professional of any kind—yet only a small percentage of all professionals are women. The course is clear. The counselor's second task is to help change the context in which women live, so that as dreams expand, so will the possibility of their implementation.

SOME EXAMPLES OF INTERVENTION

The Tiedeman-O'Hara paradigm provides a framework for diagnosis as well as a framework for intervention. The counselor can immediately assess whether a person is trying to anticipate a choice or implement a choice. A woman with a vague feeling of restlessness but no goals might need help in the exploration process. A woman with two or three strong interests might need help in examining these alternatives, weighing them, specifying, and choosing. Women who know what they want but are limited in implementing their choices pose different problems.

Illustrative of the early phase of anticipation are many women who come to see counselors about graduate work. As one woman in this situation talked to a counselor, it became clear that she wanted to be home every time her elementary school children were home. She was implementing her decision to be a mother, as she defined it, and this was the salient aspect of her life. She was, however, fantasizing about different work roles for the future. The counselor clarified this for her, thereby legitimizing the exploration process. The client left relieved and with the intention to continue exploring her own identity and goals.

The Continuum Center at Oakland University reaches literally hundreds of women in the Michigan area through its Investigation into Identity program. The underlying assumption of the program is that many adult women are confused, ambivalent, and tied up and that focus

on the exploratory, anticipatory part of the decision-making process is a first step toward gaining a sense of oneself. The fact that so many women have responded to this program indicates the need women have for clarification and exploration. In fact, this first step is a prelude to the next phase: implementing one's newfound identity.

Illustrative of the implementation phase is the case of a woman who graduated at the top of her class in business administration at a major university. At the time of graduation she had three-year-old twins and a five-year-old girl. She had been a part-time student with no academic problems. After graduation she searched in vain for a part-time job. After a year of looking she became despondent. She was committed and involved as a mother, yet she had identity needs beyond her role as a mother and wife. The counselor in this case helped her aggressively open up options by selling a bank on the idea of experimenting with part-time employment. The counselor further helped her frame a case so that the school of business administration would begin to assume a placement obligation to its women students.

A final example concerns a black high school senior in the anticipation stage. Because of her academic ability, her church awarded her a scholarship to enroll in college. Although her parents and teachers urged her to accept the scholarship, she felt hesitant to take it. The counselor's job was to help the girl uncover her real feelings about college, her fantasies about what she wanted to do with her life. She needed help in crystallizing and then specifying. It turned out that her resistance to college was not based on fear but on the fact that she had her own goals in mind. As a result of clarifying her feelings, she was able to become master of her own destiny. She turned down the scholarship, applied to a business school, and was awarded an Urban League scholarship. The counselor was able to help this girl by understanding the choice process and its ramifications and by not being hell-bent on pushing her to implement something that was not her choice.

THE COUNSELING ROLE: A DELICATE BALANCE

Since many women are limited in their explorations by social impositions, the counselor needs to go beyond the kind of counseling just described. Women, like all groups whose vocational development has been arrested, need special help in stretching, in raising their aspiration level, in raising their consciousness. Consciousness raising does not mean that every woman must aspire to enter "masculine" fields or even to achieve in a career. It means simply that women should be helped to free themselves to dream. The goal is to develop human beings who are free to act in ways that are appropriate to their interests and their values—not their sex. The fact that one is born a woman should not foreordain that she will spend hours every day in the kitchen, in the laundry room, and in low level, "feminine" occupations.

Consciousness raising can help women deal with their roles and needs. Many women, for instance, are fearful of achievement. Gornick (1971, p. 51) summarizes the findings of Horner, whose research has focused on the relationship of motivation to achievement.

In this age of lip service to equality and self-realization for all, parents encourage their daughters to fulfill their entire potential. . . . The encouragement, however, is essentially hollow. . . . The contradictory message that the girl gets, from society as well as from her parents, is that if she is too smart, too independent, and above all, too serious about her work, she is unfeminine and will therefore never get married. (Speculation that the full brunt of anxiety over femininity and academic success begins to fall upon a woman student about halfway through college is supported by special studies. For instance, one study revealed that the fear of success in women ranged from a low 47 per cent in a seventh grade junior high school sample

to a high 88 per cent in a sample of high ability undergraduate students at a promising Eastern school.)

Counselors must work with men and women to help them achieve humanity. Why should women fear success and men fear failure? Why should men and women negatively correlate achievement and femininity? Why should career and motherhood be seen as mutually exclusive? Why should men feel that it is unmasculine to arrange birthday parties, do laundry, shop, cook, and clean? A new view of men's and women's roles—of role sharing and role blurring—seems to be the wave of the future.

The counselor who shares this view, however, must be careful not to impose it on every counselee. Counselors need to work with women and men where they are as well as provide opportunities to move them further when they are ready. This is a delicate balance, but one that must be respected.

DEVELOPING GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Case after case illustrates the usefulness of the decision-making paradigm in counseling. But individual counseling is not enough, and the paradigm also provides a framework for the creation of a total developmental guidance program.

Program development is probably the least articulated aspect of guidance training. It is something we all do, but mostly on an ad hoc basis. Dworkin and Walz (1971, p. 308) write:

Traditionally decisions affecting guidance programs have not been based on sound evaluation; instead guidance personnel have tended to rely on others to make decisions about programs in guidance, or to use insight, revelation, trial and error, or some other "fly by the seat of your pants" method.

Yet program development is the building of a guidance program that will affect the lives of all those in the sphere of the counselor. Perhaps 5 percent of a class of students seek out a counselor.

The effective programmer uses this 5 percent as raw data on which to build a program to reach the 95 percent who do not seek out the counselor. To be effective, the program must reach all of the counselor's constituency, have some activities geared to the exploratory or anticipatory stage of decision making, and include other activities that will give women the skills they need for implementing decisions.

An excellent example of guidance programming can be seen in the expansion of women's counseling bureaus in colleges and universities—from none to over 450 by early 1971 (Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, 1971). The instant success of these bureaus attests to the need many adult women have to explore, crystallize, and specify new choices about themselves. These needs show the importance of systematic programs for reaching large groups. The programs, although similar in their focus—adult women—differ in their emphasis. Some are designed to expand women's horizons, to help women deal with their own identity; others focus on initiating women into the educational-vocational world. The most effective programs, therefore, would be those that develop activities to facilitate both aspects of the decision-making process.

In the first published systematic appraisal of a professionally developed and administered guidance center for women (Raines, 1970), activities deemed appropriate for inclusion in all adult guidance centers included (a) counseling individuals and groups, (b) appraising each client's potentials, (c) orienting adults in the community through workshops, (d) communicating with the total community through conferences, (e) communicating with other agencies, (f) placing clients in educational and/or training opportunities, (g) getting informational feedback on up-to-date resources, (h) developing outreach programs to contact all segments of the community, (i) build-

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ing evaluation procedures into programs, and (j) adequately supervising staff. We can see that programs must be multifaceted in order to help people both anticipate and implement—or, to put it another way, help people make effective decisions.

THE COUNSELOR AS CHANGE AGENT

The counselor of women cannot be content just to do career counseling. Despite the increasing number of women in the work force, the situation for women is no better today than it was a decade ago. The decreasing status of women in the labor force, the ever-widening salary gap, the continuation of women in limited female occupations—these facts have been widely documented. The situation calls for activism that goes well beyond career counseling.

The title of Westervelt's (1970) article, "From Evolution to Revolution," reflects my current stance. It becomes increasingly obvious to me how many aspects of American life discriminate against women. If one looks at textbooks that reflect boys as leaders and girls as housewives; if one looks at interest inventories like the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB), in which the manual states that women's primary interest is motherhood; if one studies annuity plans for university personnel that award women less retirement annuity than men—one is struck continually with the need to be vigilant in uncovering areas of discrimination and changing them. Social activism is hard work, but it is essential work if we are to make a world in which everyone can develop according to his or her proclivities, interests, and talents.

As counselors and counselor educators, what is our charge? If we see situations that hinder the development of large segments of our population, do we sit back and ignore them? Do we accept the proposition that intervention in the decision-making process improves the quality of decisions made? If we accept this proposition, we must go one step further. We cannot help individuals make fully human decisions in a context that prohibits implementation. We must therefore work with the system in changing the opportunities so that blacks and whites, men and women, old and young can develop in the vocational spheres of their lives. Women's vocational development has been arrested for complex reasons, some relating to women's own misconceptions and others to political and economic causes. Whatever the reason, I am suggesting that counselors have a pivotal role in changing or intervening in the way things are.

A forerunner of a very promising development is the role of women's advocate at the University of Michigan. The advocate is hired by students, is paid by students, and can be fired by students. The current advocate sees herself as a representative of students who want to change the academic system so that women are not continually discriminated against. The person assuming such a role is in an excellent position to bring about social change, whether the issue concerns insurance policies that use sex as the major variable in determining size of annuity; tenure being awarded to full-time workers only; or admission to a school or job being based on sex.

A pilot program in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare provides another example of social activism. A number of high level, part-time jobs were developed for economists, statisticians, and mathematicians. The success of this project indicated that many high level professional jobs can be performed on a part-time basis (Silverberg & Eyde, 1970). Recently France and Sweden have passed laws enabling men and women to opt for up to 10 years of part-time work without loss of status, seniority, or fringe benefits.

Another example of activism is re-

flected in the attempts of a small nucleus of women to change guidance materials and instruments. Many counselors have been concerned about the use of inventories like the SVIB and the Kuder Preference Record. Several people mobilized to conduct research and make public the discriminatory aspects of the current SVIB through legal arguments, resolutions to professional associations, and pressures on the publisher (Schlossberg & Goodman, 1972a).

Many counselors might agree with an activist stance but raise questions about what they can actually do to live up to this challenge. The growth of state and university commissions on the status of women, ad hoc women's liberation groups, political action groups like the National Organization for Women, the Women's Equity Action League, and the Women's National Political Caucus provide a base from which one can work as an activist.

For those counselors who are not ready to participate in such mass-based social action programs, another alternative is available. The Department of Educational Guidance and Counseling at Wayne State University is experimenting with a conference for teachers and counselors. In addition to consciousness raising, each participant must develop a new strategy, a new set of materials, or a new program in his or her school setting. The last day of the conference will take place three months after the main part. At that time each participant, in order to receive credit, must demonstrate or describe his action strategy. Thus the kinds of activism engaged in will depend on the counselors themselves. The conference will provide a springboard and a reward system for all kinds of activist programs.

SYNTHESIS

Figure 1, based on the Tiedeman-O'Hara decision-making paradigm, juxta-poses the two major stages of decision making, anticipation and implementation, against the three major guidance role areas: counseling, programming, and activism. Each counselor or counseling staff would develop activities appropriate for the particular setting. Figure 1 is intended to stimulate counselors to think in a multifaceted way. That is, in order to help clients, counselors must (a) counsel, (b) develop programs to reach those who do not seek counseling, and (c) change society so that women can develop their potentials.

Whether we are concerned with the elementary, secondary, or college level, effective counseling and programming should take the following factors into account:

1. Any grade or age level contains some people at the anticipatory stage and some at the implementation stage.

2. The same individual can be at different stages with respect to different aspects of her life.

3. Programs must be multifaceted in order to help individuals simultaneously dream and scheme. Counselors must be flexible; they must sometimes help people clarify and sometimes help people move ahead and implement.

4. Programs must have an activist component. That is, those working with women can see that exploration takes place within a sex-split context and that implementation is often possible only when based on sex-appropriate norms. Who is in a better position than the counselor to change these norms when they do not allow for full development?

We must listen, as did Westervelt (1970, p. 13), to the cries of many women: "So far . . . a major theme has been one of regret for a potential identity which is now forever lost, of gentle mourning for a self who will never come fully to life." ■

FIGURE 1

Counselor's Activities

Stage of Decision	Counseling Focus	Guidance Programming	Social Activism

Anticipation
  Exploration
    Fantasy
    Context in which choice emerges
  Crystallization
    Patterns emerge in form of alternatives
  Choice
  Specification
    Former doubts dissipate action
	Help client clarify, consider alternatives; help client begin to see herself in relation to the world of work.	Provide programs to reach all students in elementary, junior, senior high, college, and adult counseling center programs; utilize role models, curriculum materials, and workshops to stimulate exploration.	Dispel myths about women perpetuated through education and the media. Work to change norms so that work activities are not sex-linked.

Implementation
  Induction
    Face to face with reality
  Reformation
    Transition
  Integration
    Maintenance
	Help client implement her choice through placement, internship, and further counseling.	Provide programs at all levels. Build in opportunities for implementation, i.e., developing skill in applying for jobs, passing General Educational Development Tests, obtaining training.	Change opportunity structure for women by, for example, using Eyde's HEW program, enforcing the Civil Rights Act, instituting grievance procedures, revising the SVIB, fighting actuarial base of annuities.

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When I realized that I did not have to worry about succeeding in the working world but could just pursue my own interests, I was jubilant. I felt very sorry for men, who are trapped in the success syndrome. But I never considered just how constricting this syndrome is.

I doubt if anyone could be any more pro-male than I. Yet I have viewed men as "things," just as men have viewed women as objects. I want to see men too given more freedom to be themselves. This is an exciting idea to me, for it means doing away with stereotypes and maybe looking at people rather than sex roles.

As a product of an excellent counselor training program, I find myself more interested in human development than role development. I have been trained to look at the world through my client's eyes. I have been taught that this way is more than a technique; it is a way of life. I see counselors as the leaders of the human liberation movement. What a time to be alive!

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One of the most exciting things that has
happened to me since the women's
liberation movement has been my developing
a new awareness of my fellow woman.
I used to feel that women were dull and
uninteresting, and I therefore sought the
company of men. Now I am learning how
much I have in common with *all* women.
I feel a kinship with them, and it is a
very exciting feeling.

I see no reason either to play dumb or show off. While it is true that I have alienated a number of men in my life by not filling the "dumb" role they wanted me to fill, I have also had a number of wonderful experiences with men who were not threatened by a thinking female. My playing dumb implies that I am much superior to the person I am playing dumb with, and I cannot see the future in that. It is insulting to my partner.

Only in the last few years have I come to accept that I am not a zombie, a misfit, a nonperson. The women's liberation movement has done that for me. Before that I would not have been other than I was, but I felt that I was somehow not quite complete. How exciting to feel that it's all right to be what I am!

Women who say, "I don't need women's liberation; I am already liberated," don't really understand what's going on. They probably don't understand themselves yet.

Counselors and women: finding each other

JUDITH A. LEWIS

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Loyola University, Chicago.

Every Monday night at eight, as I whip
my Volkswagen into gear and ease into
the light evening traffic, I feel a strong
sense of urgency and anticipation. This
is the day and hour of my women's con-
sciousness-raising group, and the mean-
ing it has for me is intensified by my
awareness that other women like me,
sisters I've never seen or known, are
sharing my feelings and duplicating my
actions. They're plowing through drifts
of snow or tearing through the balmy
desert air or making their way through
the rain. They're driving or biking or
hoofing it. Whatever means they're using,
they're going where I'm going, and so
they're linked to me.

Their groups might not proceed in
quite the same way as ours. Many are
well structured around individual testi-
mony addressed to specific topics; ours is
so free ranging that we find ourselves
wandering into new topics, forcing our-
selves back to the subject, and then find-
ing that nothing that matters to us is
really that far off. Many are able to con-

*"We are learning that we can walk
into a room filled with women
and feel proud to be there."*

fine themselves within set time limits; ours started out meeting from 8 to 10, extended to 11 and 12, and now see us trying to tear ourselves away in the small hours of the morning.

It *is* hard for us to tear ourselves away. It's hard because we're doing what matters—talking and listening, counseling and being counseled, teaching and learning. And that's where all the women's groups, regardless of procedural differences, come together. We are, indeed, learning.

We are learning that it has to be more than coincidence that almost all of the bright, competent women we know are bogged down by nagging doubts about their own ability to think, work, or live effectively.

We are learning that we don't have to see ourselves as nit-picking weirdos doomed to go through life without personal support because we object to being called Mrs. John Jones or to being denied credit under our own names or to being termed "working mothers" when our husbands are never called "working fathers."

We are learning that experiences we thought were unique to our own lives have been shared by women of different ages, localities, and backgrounds—just because they are women.

We are learning that we no longer have to accept male-oriented economic values that classify men who work for bread as persons, women who work for bread as semipersons, and women who work in their homes as nonpersons.

We are learning that we do have options and role choices—personal as well as vocational—and that these options and choices can be enhanced through our solidarity and mutual support.

We are learning that we can walk into a room filled with women and feel proud to be there.

Yes, we are learning. And as we learn, we are getting strong—individually and collectively.

The strength we are gaining through knowledge about ourselves and our world is the kind of outcome that should comprise any counselor's dream. Yet we're doing it on our own, without professional facilitation. Even those few of us who do have counseling credentials are careful to maintain our status as group members rather than leaders.

We are moving by ourselves, and we are moving outside of institutional settings. We are going that route because we must, for fear of what would happen to us if we depended on professionals.

We are afraid that counselors would try to make us content with being called Mrs. John Jones.

We are afraid that counselors might force us to ignore the commonality of our experiences.

We are afraid that counselors would "help" us adjust to values that are harmful to our own self-concepts.

We are afraid that counselors would actually limit our options.

And we know that, even if we found professionals who wanted us to get strong individually, they might never care whether we got strong collectively.

That's sad.

It's sad because it's all too true, and it's sad because, if only it weren't true, counselors could really help.

COUNSELING AND CONSCIOUSNESS

I *must* believe that counselors could help, for even though I have been speaking as a woman looking at counseling from the outside, I am a counselor too. I am a counselor, not just through degree or certificate or job title, but through my own instincts and commitments and attitudes and identification. I am a woman and a counselor, and that should not involve any dichotomy. But it does, because women are my sisters and counselors are my peers, and those two groups with which I identify have not yet found each other. If only they could! If only the dreams counselors have for women

were the same as the dreams women have for themselves! Then counselors could help.

As the consciousness-raising movement stands today, counselors could help by being there and by bringing their professional skills and sensitivities with them. But the rap groups are coming along well without counselors and will continue to do so if necessary. Counselors could make an even more significant contribution by using the unique opportunity their role affords to bring the idea of consciousness raising to those women who have not yet been touched by it.

Today the participants in consciousness-raising groups are those women who have both the motivation and the contacts to seek, form, or be recruited into groups. That includes an amazingly large number of women, but it also means that a movement that should be even more widespread is actually limited by its own nature. If counselors were willing and able, they could create networks of women's rap groups within their own work settings and bring the movement within reach of thousands. In any setting where women are counseled, the rap group concept could be adapted to encourage exploration of the most immediately relevant women's issues.

In the public schools, from the elementary grades up, young women could have the opportunity to grow into adulthood from a base of solid understanding and mutual support. The group could serve as a vehicle through which very young women could explore together their roles and options as girls in American society and their potential roles and options as women. They could examine the choices they will face, both as workers and as total persons, and stop, at the source, the socializing process that makes self-limitation among women as deadly as external constriction. They could learn to relate to each other, to identify with each other, and to share with each other. They could realize, before it's too late, that it's really all right for little girls to dream big dreams.

At the college level women could deal even more concretely with the pressures and problems facing the educated woman in the late 20th-century United States. They could deal with the different treatment of men and women on college campuses and with the projection of that kind of process into the world of work. They could examine their own decision-making process and gain awareness of the degree to which their consideration of options is colored, not just by their own uniquenesses, but by the press of social norms. They could explore themselves and their commonalities in the here and now, at the same time developing some common notion of the tomorrow that their leadership can help to build.

And the agencies? How obvious an opportunity to help women of all races, languages, and socioeconomic classes to see the ties that bind them together into a coalition that has not yet reached the level of awareness! Women could explore together the nature and urgency of their contribution to the work force. They could share their knowledge of the pulls and tugs of family responsibility and let one another know that the kinds of conflicts they are feeling don't have to be lonely, isolated problems. They could reach a consensus about what they need and begin to find the way toward affecting their environment with a force equal to the forces that affect them. They could actually make the leap from coping to controlling.

And let's not forget that in those schools, in those universities, and in those agencies is the group whose attitudes permeate the setting: our co-workers. Why could we not bring together and help those educators who could be oracles of liberation rather than sources of limitation? Why could we not work with the people who should be leading the way toward change instead

of defending the comfort of the past? Why could we not provide experiential learning for the workers who let our institutions close doors to women instead of opening doors to everyone?

GETTING READY

Counselors could make a real impact on our society by utilizing their skills to raise the consciousness of several generations. I dream of that happening, but I know—both as a woman and as a counselor—that we are not yet prepared. We have a great deal of work to do on ourselves before we can usefully counsel women, let alone embark on the ambitious course of creating in others a level of consciousness that we ourselves have not attained.

As a profession, we are getting to the point where we recognize the disservice we've been doing to women through our dissemination of outdated occupational literature and our narrow view of women's vocational choices. But stopping there, without considering the sexist forces that have been acting on both the counselor and the counselee, is really a copout, isn't it?

Can we really go home feeling good because we finally told a high school girl that she could select freely between pre-med and nursing school? Can we really believe that she chose nursing as a unique, individual, personal decision? Can we really believe that her selection was free?

If we want our counselees to get free and to get strong, we are first going to have to get free and strong ourselves. And that means feeling some pain. It means looking long and hard at our own biases and looking long and hard at the society that created them. It means developing an awareness that is so acute that social, economic, and political inequities bombard our consciousness every day. It means tearing at the values that shield us until finally we burst out into the open and accept the reality of a woman with choices.

That is a long, difficult process—too long and too difficult to tackle alone. That is why counselors must, this time, follow someone else's lead. Before we can tamper with anyone else's consciousness, we must develop our own. The consciousness-raising movement provides the right vehicle, but the impetus has to come from our own motivation.

When we find that motivation, we will have begun the process through which women, individually and collectively, and counselors, individually and collectively, can begin to find each other. ∎

Assets and Advocates

ORGANIZATIONS

Women and the Profession

APGA *does* have a Women's Caucus! To keep up to date with our activities, check with your regional representatives.

FAR WEST

Lynn Haun, Department of Counselor Education, Sacramento State College, Sacramento, Calif.

Beatrice Pressley, Department of Educational Psychology, California State College, Hayward, Calif.

Nina Schaffer, Counseling Center, Sacramento State College, Sacramento, Calif.

Claudeen Naffzigger, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

MID-ATLANTIC

Nellie Spears, 71 Wyndover La., Stamford, Conn.

Pauline Diamond, 6436 Bannockburn Dr., Bethesda, Md.

SOUTH

Jeanne Werner, 906 Janet Dr., Auburn, Ala.

MIDWEST

Beverly Gelwick, 912 W. Rollins Rd., Columbia, Mo.

Jane Berry, University of Missouri, Kansas City

Other groups of particular significance to the counseling profession include:

Association for Women in Psychology, 1058 E. 40th St., Brooklyn, N.Y.

National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

American Federation of Teachers Women's Caucus, 1012 14th St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

National Education Association Women's Caucus, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Federally Employed Women, National Press Building, Suite 487, Washington, D.C.

New University Conference Women's Caucus, 622 W. Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Ill.

International Association of Women Students, Box 3028, University Station, Columbus, Ohio

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American Association of University Women, 2401 Virginia Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Women and Their Rights

When we provide vocational or educational counseling for a woman, our responsibility doesn't always end when a decision has been made. Often the implementation of a choice involves an active affirmation of rights. In questions of discrimination based on sex, a number of organizations and federal agencies can provide assistance.

National Organization for Women, Legal Defense and Education Fund, 1333 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C.

American Civil Liberties Union, 156 Fifth Ave., New York, N.Y.

Human Rights for Women, 1128 National Press Building, Washington, D.C.

Women's Legal Defense Fund, c/o Gladys Kessler, 1911 R St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Women's Equity Action League, c/o Carolyn J. Bishop, 325 Garner St., Apt. 101, State College, Pa.

National Welfare Rights Organization, 1419 H St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Civil Service Commission, 1900 E St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Department of Justice, Civil Rights Division, Washington, D.C.

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1800 G St., N.W., Washington, D.C.

Office of Federal Contract Compliance, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Wage and Hour Division, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C.

Women have political rights too! Check:

National Women's Political Caucus, 707 Warner Building, 13th and E Sts., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20004

Network for Economic Rights, c/o Olga Malar, UAW, 8000 E. Jefferson Ave., Detroit, Mich. 48214

Women and Their Bodies

Counselors believe in self-exploration but tend to place limitations on it by encouraging knowledge of the mind but turning away from the parallel need to know and understand the body. If we are to counsel the whole woman, we must deal with her potential as a physical as well as an intellectual being. If we are to help her make choices, we must deal with her options in relation to such issues as birth control, abortion, pregnancy, health problems, and sexual life style. Right now this kind of counseling is being provided primarily outside of traditional settings, in places such as Self-Help Clinic One, c/o Women's Center, 1027 South Crenshaw Blvd., Los Angeles, Calif. 90019.

The Self-Help Clinic is a physical and psychological consciousness-raising effort that provides a setting for women to talk about birth control, abortion, sexuality, women's unique physical health problems, and psychological myths. There are now many Self-Help Clinics in the Los Angeles area and at least one in most major cities (check your locale). The Self-Help Clinics provide sisterly—not professional—assistance.

The Women's Clinic, Harbor Free Clinic, San Pedro, Calif., provides professional assistance in concert with participant control. An all-female staff provides medical, counseling, educational, and legal services, dealing with such unique needs of women as gynecological problems, problem pregnancy counseling, female identity counseling, vocational opportunities for women, legal and welfare aid for mothers and children, and educational topics such as mother-child relationships. Women from the community are also trained in such skills as medical technology, patient advocacy, and counseling.

The Self-Help Clinic and the Women's Clinic are just two of many efforts being made throughout the country. Another really helpful project is the self-teaching course *Our Bodies Our Selves,* developed by the Boston Women's Health Course Collective (New England Free Press, 791 Tremont St., Boston, Mass. 02118).

In dealing specifically with abortion, a number of resources can provide assistance regarding political action, information, or referral. These include:

Association for the Study of Abortion, 120 W. 57th St., New York, N.Y. 10019

National Association for Repeal of Abortion Laws, 250 W. 57th St., New York, N.Y. 10019

National Organization for Women, Task Force on Reproduction and Its Control, 1957 E. 73rd St., Chicago, Ill. 60649

Women's Health and Abortion Project, 36 W. 22nd St., New York, N.Y. 10010

Women's National Abortion Action Coalition, 917 15th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005

Women and Learning

A number of organizations are taking the lead in developing information, research, and models that can help in the creation of courses of women's studies. These include:

KNOW, Inc., 726 St. James St., Pittsburgh, Pa. 15232

Center for Women's Studies and Services, San Diego State College, San Diego, Calif.

Institute of Women's Studies, B. Blackington, 1615 Myrtle St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20012

Women's History Research Center Library, 2325 Oak St., Berkeley, Calif. 94708

Sophia Smith Collection, Smith College (Catalog available from Greenwood Press, 51 Riverside Ave., Westport, Conn. 06880)

Research Center on Women, Alverno College, Milwaukee, Wis. 53215 (Pamphlet dealing with women's studies programs available for $1)

Some good general sources of information include the following:

KNOW, Inc., 726 St. James St., Pittsburgh, Pa. 15232 (The feminist press—appropriate material in a great many areas in addition to the female studies programs)

YWCA, 600 Lexington Ave., New York, N.Y. 10022

National Organization for Women, 1957 E. 73rd St., Chicago, Ill. 60649

Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210

Project on the Status and Education of Women, Association of American Colleges, 1818 R St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

Also relevant to women and education are the number of special projects and counseling services offered by colleges and universities specifically for women or for mature women returning to the world of work or school. A list of continuing education programs and services is provided by the U.S. Department of Labor. Another resource that might be of help is the Commission on Continuing Education of Women, 1225 19th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

We've learned about some interesting private counseling services being offered specifically for women, including Applied Potential, a guidance and career development service in Highland Park, Ill. (Box 19) and Options for Women, Inc., 8419 Germantown Ave., Philadelphia, Pa., which is examining alternative career patterns and flexible scheduling as well as providing guidance and counseling services. We have also heard from many community college counselors who are developing dynamic programs to meet women's needs. Check those in your area.

Information about women and their needs is constantly growing. Books are being written, and rigorous research is being performed. In addition to the literature section below and reference lists in this issue, there is a good bibliography (pertaining especially to counseling) in the Spring 1971 *Caps Capsule* (ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Information Center, School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. 48104).

And don't forget—the written word isn't everything! There are a variety of excellent women's films now available to groups. One that has special relevance for counselors is *Growing Up Female* (New Day Films, 267 W. 25th St., New York, N.Y. 10001). The portrayal of a guidance counselor brainwashing high school girls is painful to watch!

There *is* a feminist group in your locality, and it's bound to be a source of information, inspiration, and support. Find it!

LITERATURE

There is a wealth of material being published relative to the women's movement. Some general works on feminine psychology and the current movement include:

On the Psychology of Women: A Survey of Empirical Studies by Julia Sherman. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1971.

The Development of Sex Differences edited by Eleanor Maccoby. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1966.

Womankind: Beyond the Stereotypes by Nancy Reeves. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton, 1971.

Man's World, Woman's Place by Elizabeth Janeway. New York: William Morrow, 1971.

Woman in Sexist Society: Studies in Power and Powerlessness by Vivian Gornick. New York: Basic Books, 1971.

The October 1971 issue of the *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* is devoted entirely to an exploration of the women's movement. And the January 1972 issue of *Scientific American* contains an article by Jean Lipman-Blumen entitled "How Ideology Shapes Women's Lives," in which the author suggests that a woman's life goals are guided by the type of sex-role ideology acquired in childhood and that any attempts to alter cultural role definition must therefore be focused on the family system.

Two additional articles will be of special interest to our sisters in the profession:

"What Women Think Men Think: Does It Affect Their Career Choice?" by Peggy Hawley. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1971, *18*, 193–199.

"Attitudes Toward the Dual Role of the Married Professional Woman" by Maureen Kaley. *American Psychologist*, 1971, *26*, 301–306.

The first article concludes that women make career decisions on the basis of what they think men will tolerate. The second indicates that there is wide disagreement between males and females regarding the role of professional women.

The following will be of interest to counselors, as they will lead counselors to examine their own biases in sex-role stereotyping:

"Sex-Role Stereotyping and Clinical Judgments of Mental Health" by Inge Broverman, K. Broverman, Donald M. Clarkson, Frank E. Rosenkrantz, Paul S. Vogel, and Susan Vogel. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 1970, *34*, 1–7.

"Counselor Response to Female Clients with Deviate and Conforming Career Goals" by Arthur Thomas and Norman Stewart. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1971, *18*, 352–357.

Counselor Bias and the Female Occupational Role by John Pietrofesa and Nancy Schlossberg. Detroit: Wayne State University, 1970. Available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service, P.O. Drawer 0, Bethesda, Md. 20014. Microfiche, $0.65; Photocopy, $3.29; ED 044 749. 13 pp.

Finally, a useful pamphlet for anyone working with women is *Women and the New Creation* by Patricia Kepler and Anne Schaef. It includes a study course on identity for women in the '70's and can be ordered for 50¢ from the Office for Women's Program, Board of Christian Education, United Presbyterian Church in the U.S.A., Witherspoon Building, Room 730, Philadelphia, Pa. 19107.

LEGISLATION

In order to help your counselees (or yourself) deal with problems involving discrimination in employment, it is important to know the major laws and executive orders used to enforce equal opportunity rights. The following summary is adapted from material provided by the Women's Advocate Corps, Chicago Chapter, National Organization for Women.

1964 Civil Rights Act, Title VII

Title VII prohibits sex discrimination in the following cases: hiring or firing; wages, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment; classifying, assigning, or promoting employees; training; employment advertising (want ads); applications, classifications, and referrals for jobs; labor union membership. The act covers employers of 15 or more persons, labor unions, public and private employment agencies, and joint labor-management apprenticeship programs. Title VII is enforced by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, with court enforcement power.

Fair Labor Standards Act, 1963 Equal Pay Amendment

The Equal Pay Amendment guarantees equal pay for substantially similar kinds of work, without discrimination because of sex. The law also makes it illegal for an employer to classify employees according to sex for the purpose of avoiding the equal

pay requirements. Whereas Title VII of the Civil Rights Act requires that the identity of the charging party be revealed to the respondent, this act allows the complainant to remain anonymous, thus providing her with some protection against reprisals. This law does not cover executive, administrative, and professional employees, including academic administrative personnel and teachers. It does provide for the awarding of back wages and damages when the case is decided in favor of the complainant. The Equal Pay Amendment is enforced by the Wage and Hour Division, U.S. Department of Labor.

Executive Orders 11246 and 11375

Executive Order 11246 and its Amendment 11375 prohibit sex discrimination in employment by federal contractors. The interpretation of "contractor" is broad, including colleges and universities, small personal property suppliers, etc. These executive orders are enforced by the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, U.S. Department of Labor, which has the power to withhold federal contracts pending compliance reviews and to deny federal funds to contractors who are found guilty of discrimination.

Contractors with over $50,000 in federal contracts must file affirmative action plans, including both goals and timetables, satisfying the terms set forth in Revised Order 4.

Executive Order 11478

This executive order prohibits sex discrimination in employment with the federal government and provides for Affirmative Action Plans in the various federal agencies. It is administered, rather than enforced, by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Each federal agency is allowed to establish its own regulatory procedures and equal employment opportunity complaint systems. Because of this, requirements for filing complaints may vary from agency to agency.

Coming in December

SPECIAL FEATURE ON APGA CONVENTIONS

Jon D. Boller believes "There's a Convention Communication Gap," and the three Coordinators of the 1973 APGA Conventions react to his comments and describe some of the plans for the Conventions to be held in their cities. Rounding out this feature is an article by Dalva E. Hedlund and Howard C. Kramer describing the success of the 1972 Chicago Convention program "Workshop in Designing Experiential Learning."

Is there a convention communication gap? Check out the five articles in the special feature section of the December *Personnel and Guidance Journal* for some answers.

Guidelines for Authors

When submitting an article for publication in the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an original and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space all material.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.* The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

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ARTICLES

IN THE FIELD

POEMS

Practical Reading For Counseling Work

PRESCRIPTIONS FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING AND ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS by Ralph F. Blanco, *Temple Univ., Philadelphia.* '72, about 248 pp.

DEVELOPMENTAL HANDICAPS IN BABIES AND YOUNG CHILDREN: A Guide for Parents by Diana L. Brown, *Mount Carmel Guild Child Study Center, Newark, New Jersey.* '72, 100 pp., $5.75

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION: Profession and Process edited by John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville,* and Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond. (25 Contributors)* '72, 576 pp., 2 il., 1 table, $18.50

WOMEN IN TRANSITION by Andrew J. DuBrin, *Rochester Institute of Technology, New York.* '72, 192 pp., 2 il., 2 tables, cloth-$11.75, paper-$6.75

LEARNING DISABILITIES: A Book of Readings compiled and edited by Larry A. Faas, *Arizona State Univ., Tempe. (25 Contributors)* '72, 272 pp., 15 il., 6 tables, $10.75

THEORIES AND METHODS OF GROUP COUNSELING IN THE SCHOOLS (2nd Ptg.) edited by George M. Gazda. *(8 Contributors)* '72, 240 pp., $7.50

INNOVATIONS IN PSYCHOTHERAPY compiled and edited by George D. Goldman and Donald S. Milman, *both of Adelphi Univ., New York. (20 Contributors)* '72, 320 pp., 4 tables, $12.75

SOCIAL AND REHABILITATION SERVICES FOR THE BLIND by Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull. *(22 Contributors)* '72, 420 pp., $15.75

PETS AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT by Boris M. Levinson, *Yeshiva Univ., New York.* '72, 256 pp., 13 tables, $10.50

A MILIEU THERAPY PROGRAM FOR BEHAVIORALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN by Marjorie McQueen Monkman, *Univ. of Illinois, Urbana.* '72, 312 pp., 21 il., 3 tables, $14.50

COUNSELING PARENTS OF THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILD compiled and edited by Robert L. Noland, *Univ. of Dayton, Ohio. (45 Contributors)* '72, 452 pp., 7 il., $11.50
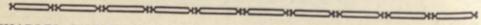
PERSPECTIVE AND CHALLENGE IN COLLEGE PERSONNEL WORK by James F. Penney, *Boston Univ.* '72, 108 pp., $6.50

COUNSELOR EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION: Readings in Theory, Practice, and Research compiled and edited by Milton Seligman and Norman F. Baldwin, *both of Univ. of Pittsburgh. (60 Contributors)* '72, 436 pp., 5 il., 34 tables, $14.75
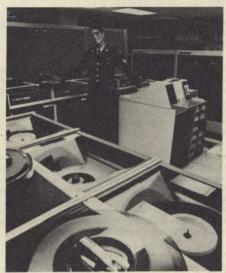
MARITAL THERAPY: Moral, Sociological and Psychological Factors compiled and edited by Hirsch Lazaar Silverman, *Seton Hall Univ., South Orange, New Jersey.* Foreword by Edward J. Rydman. *(47 Contributors)* '72, 576 pp. (6 3/4 x 9 3/4), 4 il., 4 tables, $24.75

FUNDAMENTALS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT by Herman R. Tiedeman, *Illinois State Univ., Normal.* '72, 144 pp., 16 il., 28 tables, $11.75

PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF MENTAL HEALTH CONSULTATION edited by Jack Zusman and David L. Davidson, *both of State Univ. of New York at Buffalo.* Introduction by Peter F. Regan. *(13 Contributors)* '72, 176 pp., 1 il., 4 tables, $6.75

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Feedback

Counselors Are Not Only in Schools

I thoroughly enjoyed the exchange of letters between Mr. Loscocco and yourself (June 1972). I believe that the basic problem is reflected in the article by Arbuckle, "The Counselor: Who? What?" in the same issue. The problem is that when a counselor is defined and his functions specified, it is invariably in an educational setting. As Arbuckle states, "His primary professional function . . . is . . . involvement with individuals, small groups of students, teachers, or parents."

This orientation not only may place limits on the role of a counselor as he functions in other settings but also may be the basis for dissatisfaction with the ivory tower theorist and journals oriented toward nonfunctional articles. A counselor is not only in school but also in rehabilitation, welfare, probation, parole, corrections, employment service, aging, community mental health, and other helping services. In these agencies a counselor may find it necessary to intervene more actively to lessen the debilitating impact of hiring discrimination. A probation-parole officer may find the local police involved in selective enforcement. I do not think that in these instances the client should be the only seeker of change.

Active involvement in social change does not necessarily mean identification with a social or political cause, as Arbuckle states. A helper needs to be aware that in day-to-day living an individual needs all the support he can get, especially in coping with the barriers our society has inadvertently or deliberately placed in the individual's way.

Some may question whether a general role of "counselor" is viable. For the sake of simplicity I would merely extend Arbuckle's definition from a commitment to help individuals obtain a higher level of freedom, dignity, and pride in self to a commitment to help institutions and agencies attain the same goals.

If counseling and the counselor continue to be defined primarily in an educational context, their viability to field personnel is questionable.

THOMAS C. NEIL
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia

Guidance Conference at Playboy Club

The use of the polarities "feminist" and "traditionalist," transcended by the "humanist," in Arbuckle's (June 1972) article is an unfortunate analysis that would appear to be the result of an emotional response to Gardner's writing in the P&G Social Revolution issue (May 1971). According to my Random House dictionary, a *feminist* is a person who seeks social and political rights for women. If we take seriously that ethical standard of our profession—"to help individuals realize their potential"—we do indeed need to seek social and political rights for women, whether as male or female feminists.

Gardner says (and Arbuckle labels it as solemn and pontifical): "Today it is probably not a serious misrepresentation to say that all counselors are sexist." What are some indications from which she may have drawn this conclusion? The Midwest Regional Leadership Conference, representing leaders of this profession from 10 states, and the entire state professional association of Wis-

consin have signed a contract to hold an annual professional meeting in November of 1972 at one of the most sexist clubs in the United States: the Playboy Club. This economic support of a sexist meeting place implies acceptance of sexist philosophy by 10 midwestern professional guidance and personnel groups. And has Arbuckle noted how many women are members of governing boards, professors of guidance, directors of admissions in colleges, or directors of guidance in high schools? Gardner's charges could probably be substantiated.

Those feminists working for the social and political equality of women in Wisconsin and nationally are also working toward a society that does not stereotype the feminine and the masculine, a society that finds the killing of young men as inhumane as the killing of women and children, a society in which all of life's options, including self-esteem, are accessible to the poor, the jobless, the dependent, and the "different."

I write from the city that spawned Abraham Maslow's early thinking on mental health and his research on females. I think his humanistic definition would have included the work that feminists are engaged in to ensure the dignity, equality, and freedom of all people. That Arbuckle's definition does not is a tragedy for all who take an active approach to the designing of a humanistic society.

JOAN DANIELS PEDRO
Guidance Counselor
Madison, Wisconsin

Is This Liberation?

I want to be free, and I will join the Great Crusade. I will burn my bra, forsake my husband, and confine my children to day care. I will work for The Cause 4 hours each day and devote 12 each day to my career. I will fight sex role stereotypes everywhere and will cry, "Sisterhood is powerful!" Having developed my potential, I will achieve total personal fulfillment when I have at last clawed my way to the absolute top of my profession. I will not wear makeup or smile at men. A female doctor will treat my ulcers, but I will not contaminate myself by having contact with those who engage in psychological research and other strange practices. I will not

bake bread, place flowers in a vase, or help another person.

Can this be liberation? Dear God, please give me back my chains!

From a female counselor
who prefers to remain anonymous

No Distinguished Women?

The APGA film series now has 19 films featuring 10 "Distinguished Contributors to Counseling." Why are they all *men*?

The "names" in counseling do tend to be men, e.g., C. Gilbert Wrenn, John Krumboltz, C. H. Patterson, Donald Super, etc., to name some that appear in the films. But is there not a single "name" in counseling who is a woman?

True, we have a woman president of APGA now, but is she among the "Distinguished Contributors to Counseling"? Are there others who should be? I wonder if we have really recognized the women who have made significant contributions.

I suggest that to rectify this situation we look for women in our field—take "affirmative action," as the federal government puts it, to rectify sex imbalance. Why not have films about Leona Tyler on human traits and differences, L. Sunny Hansen on career guidance or the use of volunteers, Barbara Varenhorst on career gaming, Anne Roe on the origin of interests, Thelma Daley on her TV counseling programs, and Kitty Cole on her role at APGA headquarters?

And why not borrow for the film series women from other related fields as we have borrowed men? I might suggest Judith Bardwick on counseling women and biocultural conflicts, Elizabeth Janeway on social mythology of man's world and woman's place, Evelyn Duvall on adolescence, Margaret Mead on cultural conditioning as it affects human personality development, Anna Freud on psychoanalysis for teachers and parents.

Why is it important to film women as well as men in a "distinguished" series? First, as counselors we have all learned the value of role models. And counselors as well as clients need role models. Without female role models, no wonder so few women counselors have achieved "distinguished" status!

Second, when an occupation has the num-

Books to help young people cope with their concerns and problems

ber of professionally trained women that ours does and yet men receive most of the exposure, there is reason to suspect the possibility of discrimination, subtle if not obvious. The federal government, at least, has been insisting on "affirmative action" in similar situations for the continuation of funding to higher education.

Third, as a profession that supposedly values traditionally female characteristics such as empathy, warmth, and understanding, it seems ironic that all the "distinguished" counselors should be men!

Fourth, as a profession that has for years avowedly protected the individual development of clients, it would seem that we should be in the forefront of societal change in the direction of equality for all, regardless of sex, race, economic situation, values, etc., rather than dragging our heels well behind the leadership of this country.

Are there really no "Distinguished Contributors to Counseling" who are women?

ARLENE L. BRECKENRIDGE
Cooper High School
Minneapolis, Minnesota

[Editor's Note: After I received Ms. Breckenridge's letter, I did some checking and discovered that this situation is being at least partially corrected. The "Distinguished Contributors to Counseling" series will include filmed interviews with Leona Tyler. At the time of going to press, this project was already underway. Never underestimate the power of a letter to an editor!]

Toward Better Conventions

Special Feature Coming in December

Is there an APGA "Convention Communication Gap"? Jon D. Boller thinks so. He tells why in the December issue of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL and suggests some things that might be done to close the gap.

The three 1973 Convention Coordinators—Altha Williams in San Diego, Marlin K. Jackoway in St. Louis, and Louis E. Shilling in Atlanta—respond to Jon Boller's comments, react with some of their own suggestions for improved conventioneering, and outline some plans for the APGA Conventions to be held in their cities.

Rounding out this Special Feature is an article by Dalva E. Hedlund and Howard C. Kramer describing the success of the 1972 Chicago Convention program "Workshop in Designing Experiential Learning."

The first issue of the JOURNAL containing a Special Feature, introduced by Editor Leo Goldman, the December P&G is a must for all APGA conventioneers.

Editorial

CHANGE? YES, BUT HOW?

P&G receives quite a few manuscripts every year that say, in effect, "Counselor, you should change. You should become more of an applied behavioral scientist, or more of a consultant, or a trainer of paraprofessionals, or a designer of environments, or an agent of change . . ." etc., etc., etc.

Some of the ideas are new; some are not so new. Some are clearly thought through; others are vague and undeveloped. And each of them would appeal to some among us. But whatever our personal preferences, there is no doubt in my mind that many of the ideas for change deserve a hearing, and some of them a tryout.

But an almost universal shortcoming in these articles is their failure to deal with one critical question, that is, how can one accomplish the change? Specifically, how can one get institutions to accept new ways of doing things, and how can one get people to try the new ways?

Like most fields, ours already has more new ideas than we would normally do anything about for decades. In private enterprise there is pretty strong incentive for change; if you can reduce the cost of a product or increase its attractiveness, your sales and profits will probably increase. But what incentive do we have in the helping fields? So far, apparently not enough to overcome the tenacious resistance to change that seems inherent in the human being and the social institution.

Will accountability be the motivator we have been seeking? Will the decreased demand for counselors force us to try new and hopefully better ways to provide services? Or will these too pass?

Of one thing I have no doubt: We have not proved to ourselves or our consumers that we are using ourselves in the most effective ways. We do need to try new roles and new methods, at least on an experimental basis. But at this point what I think we need most of all are ideas for implementing new ideas. We need the best thinking we can get to help answer the question: How do you get people and institutions to abandon their accustomed ways of doing things and try something else? Manuscripts addressed to that question will receive a warm welcome. ■ LG

The ethics of creative growth

EUGENE W. KELLY, JR.

Explicitly ethical discussions among guidance and personnel professionals generally involve intraprofessional concerns and the specifying of minimal standards of professional behavior. The author of this article proposes that wider, more challenging, ethical issues should not be treated as special topics within these professions but should be considered crucial parts of the mainstream of ethical thought and practice. This shift would help to make critical moral problems the professional concern of all guidance and personnel workers, not the specialty of only a few.

So-called ethical discussions in counseling are usually based on the familiar concepts of controls, laws, or standards. Treating these concepts leads to discussions of minimums—the definition of minimal forms of behavior required for proper professional practice.

There is another, more challenging, way of approaching ethical concerns. It involves looking beyond the minimum, beyond the limits, into the realm of creative, growth-producing, moral behavior, especially as it has been given flesh and blood in the actions of heroically moral persons. It means taking one's basic cue from the lives and ethical statements of great moral leaders. It means asking not what one must do as a minimum but finding out what one can do when reaching to the capacity of his power for doing good. Ethics in this sense is not a caution to watch what we do but a challenge to do the most that we can. It is the ethics of creative and

risk-taking service for justice, not "the practice of *ethiscuity* . . . the promiscuous taking of refuge in ethics to protect oneself from potentially threatening, embarrassing, and anxiety-producing relationships with clients, thereby avoiding service to them [Long & Impellitteri 1971, p. 560]." When ethics are approached in the larger, more creative way, it becomes clear that a profession ought not assign critical and relevant moral issues to special topics while limiting professional ethical discussions to such intraprofessional issues as confidentiality, privileged communication, or test security.

EXAMPLES OF MORAL LEADERSHIP

Serious reflection on the lives and writings of great moral leaders is an excellent way to begin a shift from "ethics as usual" to creative ethics. The ethics of moral leadership extend the boundaries of justice and creates new opportunities for human freedom and growth. The history of such leadership is the history of men and women courageously speaking and living the truth. To recall the words and deeds of only a few of them is to have a vision of ethics far more noble and ennobling than the usual casuistry does.

Martin Luther King, Jr., a prophet in

EUGENE W. KELLY, JR. is Assistant Professor of Education, Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia.

our own time, echoed in his words and acts the thunder of the ancient biblical prophet Amos: "Let justice roll down like waters, and righteousness like an ever-flowing stream." Both men confronted the "spiritual leaders" of their time. King labored against the "moderation" and "negative peace" that spawned injustice, and he called for "creative extremists" who would act not as "thermometer[s] that recorded the ideas and principles of popular opinion, but as thermostat[s] that would transform the mores of society [King 1963, p. 12]."

Great moral leaders, such as Jesus and Gandhi, literally proclaimed with their lives that law and tradition, without a courageous living of the spirit of truth and justice, cannot provide all persons the dignity and opportunity that is their due. Malcolm X wrote: "Only such real meaningful actions as those which are sincerely motivated from a deep sense of humanism and moral responsibility can get at the basic causes that produce the racial explosions in America today [1965, p. 384]." It is this "deep sense of humanism and moral responsibility" that moves ethical behavior from action by law and standards alone to creative action beyond law and standards. "I think we should be men first, and subjects afterwards. It is not desirable to cultivate a respect for the law, so much as for the right. The only obligation which I have a right to assume, is to do anytime what I think right [Thoreau 1963, p. 233]."

When viewed against the direction and force of creative morality, it is clear that explicitly ethical considerations in the field of counseling have not completely avoided "ethiscuity." This is not to say that many ethical writings are not valuable contributions to directing behavior. It is to say that the overall thrust of explicitly ethical considerations in counseling has been to define the parameters of acceptable professional behavior, not to challenge the practitioner to expand the opportunities for human justice.

MACROETHICS

From one point of view, explicitly ethical concerns within the counseling profession and in the preparation of counselors can be characterized as microethics. They appear to originate primarily from within the disciplines of counseling or psychology and are concerned predominantly with the counselor and his clients as more or less isolated individuals. They are not macroethics because they do not start from, nor do they barely consider, the societal dimensions of justice, and they largely neglect the counselor's and client's responsible interrelationships with their society.

For example, in Section A of the Ethical Standards of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (1971), the member is instructed that he has an obligation to his profession (#1), to the institution he serves (#2), and to the public insofar as he should charge fair fees for service (#7), provide information in an accurate and appropriate manner (#8), and provide only those services for which he is qualified (#6). There is no mention in this section that the guidance and personnel worker, as a member of a helping and human services organization, has an obligation to the public he serves to expand the opportunities for justice and growth within that public's environment. Such an obligation is perhaps hinted at in #6 of the Preamble, where it is stated that "a profession exalts service to the individual and society above personal gain," a sentiment echoed in #6 of Section G and in #1 of Section B, where it is stated that "the member's *primary* (Standard's italics) obligation is to respect the integrity and *promote the welfare* (my italics) of the counselee. . . ." But these statements do not explicitly offer an ethical challenge to the practitioner to become actively involved in altering the societal or environmental conditions that adversely affect the func-

tioning and the growth of his clientele.

The Ethical Standards rightfully place a high value on the integrity of the client and his freedom to make his own choices (Section B; Section C, #1; Section E, #2, #4). Considering the divergent schools of thought that serve as bases for counseling and personnel practice, it may be impossible to go beyond a statement endorsing a client's freedom. There is serious question, however, as to whether the counselor has "no . . . responsibility to approve or disapprove of the choices or decisions of the counselee or client [Section B]." While it would not be right to turn counseling or therapy into a process of single-minded persuasion, much less coercion, it is simply an abandonment of responsibility to remain (or, more likely, pretend to remain) detached from the decisions and behaviors of the client. Values are involved in counseling and in the training of counselors (Blocher 1966), and even highly nondirective methods have some reinforcing effects on the discussions and direction of behavior. More importantly, there are values and there are values. It is paradoxical, to say the least, that a member of a profession concerned with the development of human potential remains neutral regarding decisions and behaviors that are detrimental not only to the client but to others as well.

A provision to take action in cases of "clear and imminent danger to the counselee or client or to others . . . [Section B, #8]" does not resolve the dilemma. Neither is it resolved by referral or termination (Section B, #6) or an agreement between the helper and his client on goals to be pursued (Section E, #2). There remains the issue of the helper's duty to assist his client in becoming a responsibly active person in his relationships with others. It is an absurdity that the counselor's or therapist's or personnel worker's primary or sole responsibility is to free his client to act and then leave completely to others (e.g., ministers of religion or political activists) the task of promoting basic values.

The true helper holds human growth for all persons and responsible human interaction to foster this growth as predominant values in his whole system of values. How can he remain a helper in the service of human growth and justice if he separates the health of his client from his client's growing ability to choose and act responsibly for the welfare of others as well as himself? He may be a technician for the adjustment of human behaviors and emotions, a facilitator of acting and feeling. But effective and healthy living is not only the capacity to act or not to act, to feel or not to feel. It is the capacity to act responsibly and creatively for oneself and others, the capacity to grow as a result of responsible and creative activity.

ETHICS OF RISK

The stated professional ethics of counselors and personnel workers are not only microethics. They are, from another point of view, the ethics of caution. They are largely concerned with the protection of individuals—a noble ethical concern, to be sure—or, in some cases, with the protection of formal institutions—a far more dubious concern. These ethics fail to challenge us to use and develop what knowledge and skills we have to become ourselves and to move others to become venturesome, creative individuals, prepared to alter the environments that cripple them. In always directing us to be careful, these ethics quietly allow us to avoid the risk inherent in pressing for individual growth and institutional change. They have primarily an individualistic, inward focus, unbalanced by the larger demands of society and responsible interrelationships.

An example of caution ethics, unbalanced by risk ethics, is Section A, #2 of APGA's Ethical Standards. It makes a reasonable statement, as it advises a

member that he should be in "substantial agreement with the general policies and principles of the institution" with which he accepts employment. The rest of the statement is also reasonable, but it is the kind of reasonableness that comes close to equating goodness with a resignation to the status quo. According to the Standards, the personnel worker, when he is in conflict with the institution, is expected to make an effort to reach agreement with his superiors concerning ethical conduct and, if he cannot, to terminate his employment with the institution. While separation from intransigent and suffocating institutions is not only reasonable but also highly desirable, the admonition to flee after the failure of efforts to reach agreement with superiors contains only the barest implication that a member should struggle to change those elements of an institution that are unjust and impede his own growth and the growth of others. It is true that #3 and #4 of Section A, which obligate members to attempt to rectify the unethical behavior of personnel co-workers, contain the implication that a member should work to change or improve the human services of unjust or ineffective institutions. But these three paragraphs (#2, #3, #4) lack the forceful clarity of directing a member to work for substantial changes in a human services organization that is severely deficient in its operation and even to the extent of working until he is terminated rather than terminating himself.

STRENGTHENED CODE OF ETHICS

Beck (1971) states that codes of ethics "are addressed to the correction of known deficiencies and malpractices in the past" and "become a minimal expectation for 'improving the past' and can only suggest a principle of decision-making for the future [p. 320]." If this is truly the case, then the exploration and specification of the broader, more challenging ethical principles and issues facing the profes-

sion must be left to individuals and small groups in the profession who can speak out in the journals and meetings. Certainly there are those whose writings and work are challenging us not only to think about pressing human problems but also to confront these problems constructively as they manifest themselves in our own lives (Carkhuff 1971).

The ongoing moral challenges presented by our colleagues are indispensable to the human services professions. But the relegation of such challenges on critical issues to special topic discussions tends to leave the ethical considerations and activities of the profession as a whole at the minimum level. Our professional code of ethics and the rather narrowly conceived ethical writings related to it need to incorporate challenges beyond the minimum and concerns beyond the intraprofessional. Racial injustice, war, economic inequities, and antidemocratic authoritarianism are not passing or peripheral problems in our society. They involve an enormous and continuing mass of activities that inflict extensive human injustice and greatly impede human growth. A human services professional code of ethics that fails to incorporate responsibilities concerning such problems is not only minimal; it is emaciated.

Since it is unlikely that human macroproblems will ordinarily give way to "business as usual," our code of ethics would do well to incorporate the responsibilities of personal risk. The present APGA Standard's directive to place service to the individual and society above personal gain is commendable, but the code would be strengthened if responsible risk taking in specific areas were recommended.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHANGES

Macroethical concerns and the responsibilities of ethical risks could be integrated into appropriate sections of the

Ethical Standards. For example, Section A, #2 could read:

The member has a responsibility to the institution he serves. This responsibility implies not only that he is in substantial agreement with the general policies and principles of the institution in which he has accepted employment but also that he exerts himself to see that the institution operates in a manner conducive to human justice and the dignity and growth of its workers as well as its clientele. His professional activities are therefore in accord with both those of the institution and those of human justice and constructive human services. In those cases where the objectives or activities of the institution are either in conflict with effective and just human services or are ineffective in administering human services, the member will persistently attempt to rectify the situation, even to the point of having his position terminated. In those cases where, despite his efforts, he cannot effect agreement with his superiors as to acceptable minimum ethical standards of conduct in his work setting, he should end his affiliation with them.

In addition to strengthening the Standards in appropriate places, a separate section could be added to delineate more specifically the personnel worker's macroethical responsibilities as a professional. Such a section would deal with the growth inhibiting problems mentioned previously: racial injustice; violation of conscience, especially in times of war; economic injustice; antidemocratic authoritarian behavior that squelches the freedom and growth of individuals. Part of such a section might read as follows:

Guidance and personnel workers acknowledge the right of all adults, and, according to their level of maturity, all youth, to have the opportunity of participating in the formulation of decisions affecting the growth and direction of their lives. In their professional services to individuals and institutions, they accept the responsibility of extending this right and, in cases where it has been curtailed or denied, working for its full reestablishment.

In the issue of microethics, macroethics, the ethics of caution, and the ethics of risk, it is not a matter of emphasizing one or another but of bringing them all into proper balance in ethical statements as well as ethical practices. It means explicitly incorporating into our ethical considerations the principle that we are not isolated individuals or professionals but beings in the world, beings who influence and are influenced by a dynamic web of interrelationships. It means acknowledging that our interrelationships carry with them degrees of responsibility for changing repressive or crippling environments. It means accepting the fact that we cannot have absolute certainty before we act and must therefore risk acting with our best knowledge and skills. It means accepting the risks inherent in any creative or courageous act.

CONCLUSION

It is ridiculous, of course, to think that any code, no matter how clearly and forcefully written, will have much, if any, power to enforce what it advocates. My purpose in writing this article is not simply—or even primarily—to have a new code written. My main intent is to say as clearly as possible that our professional ethical considerations should not be limited to intraprofessional concerns about such things as confidentiality, test security, research reporting, and the like. Our professional ethics should rather incorporate the serious business of actively and constructively confronting and dealing with the desperate (and sometimes the not so desperate) human problems in our society with intelligence, skill, and courage. But perhaps changing our code of ethics would contribute to incorporating this more serious brand of ethics. When used as a basis for ethical discussions in training, a strengthened code would make it more difficult to avoid the macroethical issues. The real moral problems of our time and society will not be special topics only but central elements in the development of a professional helper; not issues for the specialists but integral concerns for all who truly wish to operate ethically. ∎

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REMEMBER

Remember draws down like a shade
to cancel feelings out;
and even words can lose their shape
through time, and space, and doubt.

The mind can't very long endure
the burden of regret;
and so we hold within ourselves
the power to forget.

Now—perhaps I have no right
to ask you once again,
to lift the shade on all the pain
you felt so deeply then;

yet—if the shade is raised part-way,
we may begin to see
the why of what has happened,
the how of what could be.

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Use of the encouragement process in Adlerian counseling

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Encouragement in all facets of the counseling interview is a critical ingredient in the counseling process. This article sets forth the theory and specific applications of the encouragement process in counseling, as viewed in the socio-teleological model.

An inspection of different counseling approaches indicates that encouragement is a necessary element in each of the major theories of counseling, whether or not the theory explicitly provides for it. While the term *encouragement* may not be described explicitly, procedures that work are inevitably in line with the encouragement process. The behaviorist uses reinforcement, the Rogerian empathizes and accepts, the rational emotive therapist and the reality therapist find assets and help the client learn to become responsible for his own behavior. This article focuses on the socio-teleological use of encouragement.

Encouragement on the part of the counselor is comprised of both verbal and nonverbal procedures that enable a counselee to experience and become aware of his own worth. The counselor expresses faith in and total acceptance of the counselee as he is, not as he could or should be. Encouragement as defined here does not imply that the counselor rewards, bribes, or praises; it means rather that he places value on the counselee's uniqueness and humanness and indicates to him that because he is human he is of worth and value. Counselor encourage-

ment helps to correct the counselee's mistaken assumption that he is inferior to or not as able as others. The counselor demonstrates encouragement with a strong, empathic attitude that emphasizes health rather than illness, strength rather than weakness, ability rather than inability. He completely accepts the counselee as a person of real value.

The counselor can provide encouragement to the counselee in every phase of the counseling process. This makes for more than just a good relationship, more than what is labeled "rapport."

Self-identity is a product of interpersonal experiences and feedback from significant others. We derive our feelings of adequacy or inferiority through feedback from parents, siblings, and peers. Lack of self-esteem produces dysfunctional behavior. One's self-esteem can be enhanced through the encouragement process.

The significance of the self-concept for the educational process is often underestimated. Poor self-concepts, however, and the resulting lack of confidence in mastering the environment, are usually associated with deficiency in one's school performance.

Action research in the Cupertino Union Elementary School District, Cu-

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pertino, California, has demonstrated that

despite the wide range of symptomatic behaviors our children exhibit, the major underlying factor that results in underachievement, lack of motivation, and unproductive conduct, is low self-esteem [Randolph & Howe 1966, p. 3].

There are numerous indications in the research that feeling adequate is important. Combs and Soper (1963) found that "the feeling of adequacy is, in general, positively correlated with desirable adjustment and behavior." They reported that

the most significant change for children of this research is the decrease in the feeling of adequacy they seem to be experiencing as they move from kindergarten to first grade [p. 145].

Wattenberg and Clifford (1964) pointed out the significance of the self-concept by stating:

In general, the measures of self-concept and the ratings of ego strength made at the beginning of kindergarten proved to be somewhat more predictive of reading achievement two years later than was the measure of mental ability [p. 466].

ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT BEHAVIOR

The encouragement process is an important element in any counseling process, but it is most often associated with the socio-teleological model, which looks at man as a decision making being whose behavior has a social purpose (Dreikurs 1950). The psychological frame of reference of this model enables one to see the pattern of psychological movement and understand the dynamics of discouragement. The following premises provide guidelines for understanding the significance of encouragement from the socio-teleological point of view.

1. *Behavior is best understood in terms of its unity or pattern.* Encouragement focuses on the counselor's influencing the counselee's beliefs and perceptions about himself and others. Encouragement is as concerned with the life style or total life pattern as it is with reinforcing specific elements of behavior. Positive feedback and interaction can give the counselee the impetus he needs to change his attitudes and behavior. When the counselor can influence what a man anticipates or believes about himself, the counselor can help him change the direction of his psychological movement from a passive or destructive approach to an active or constructive one. Making a counselee aware of his pattern and style of life and his capacity to change it is part of the encouragement process. The counselor can assist the counselee in developing this awareness by sharing with him a tentative hypothesis about the counselee's style of life. "Is it possible that you keep yourself from productive behavior by creating problems that block your progress?" With questions such as this he can make the counselee aware that he has the power to change his attitudes and behavior.

2. *Behavior is goal directed and purposive.* Recognition of the purposive nature of behavior enables one to detect the purpose of a pessimistic, or discouraged, approach to life. Understanding the purposive-consequential nature of behavior usually leads to a ready understanding of how to change behavior; e.g., if a person is seeking attention, give him that attention for the good things he does rather than being overconcerned with his bad behavior. The discouraged counselee usually gets the counselor's special treatment through revealing his disabilities and demanding service for them rather than for his positive qualities.

3. *Determine the way in which the person strives to be significant.* Understanding the ways in which a child seeks to be known—e.g., as a scholar, an athlete, a singer, or a bully—leads to the discovery of the master motive that directs his life style and his behavior. The counselor can make the destructive child

aware of alternative ways to obtain attention, recognition, and influence in a socially acceptable manner. Encouragement is most potent when applied to things the child really values. The child's desire to excel athletically, for example, can be turned either to socially useful or socially destructive ends. The counselor must use the master motive to produce positive growth.

4. *Behavior has social meaning.* The child, as a social being, is best understood when his behavior is viewed and understood in its social context. His experiences with parents, siblings, and peers have caused him to have strong anticipations and expectations about himself. If encouragement is to be successful, the significant others in the child's life must provide interaction and feedback to build his courage and self-esteem. This calls for using group procedures with the peers and significant adults. Peer feedback and encouragement that occurs in groups has the power to produce change, and counselees react more favorably to peer than counselor encouragement.

5. *Each person interprets life in terms of his unique perceptions.* Encouragement is based not as much on what the counselor does as on how the counselee interprets the counselor's actions. The counselor must understand what the counselee perceives as encouraging.

THE DYNAMICS OF DISCOURAGEMENT

To be an effective encourager the counselor must understand encouragement's counterforce: discouragement. Discouragement refers to a condition and a process that restricts one's courage to the extent that it prevents him from acting. One who possesses courage tries to act in situations where others would give up or not even make an attempt. The individual with courage is able to see possibilities, potentials, and alternatives. The discouraged person sees none of these

and functions as if there were no hope. He is convinced that he is inferior, inadequate, and a failure. He is concerned with status, prestige, and upward or vertical movement. He lacks the courage to be imperfect. One must accept that he is imperfect in order to begin to cope with his problems. But the discouraged person is concerned with his incapacity and continues to create situations that reinforce his faulty assumptions.

The counselor must recognize that anticipations and expectations are among the most potent of human motivations. The counselee acts in accord with what he anticipates. Thus, if he is to change, he must change his convictions and anticipations.

ENCOURAGEMENT IN THE COUNSELING PROCESS

One of the major problems in counseling involves the counselor's developing practical procedures to facilitate change in the perceptions and behavior of counselees. The counseling literature abounds with methods of reflecting, clarifying, empathizing, and confronting, all of which are certainly important components in effective counseling. However, little attention has been given to the significance of encouragement as a procedure. Imagine the improved efficiency of counseling if counselor educators were as zealous about training students to encourage as they have been in teaching about empathy, reflection, congruence, and confrontation!

I will discuss counseling in terms of four phases: the relationship, diagnosis, insight, and reorientation (Dreikurs 1967). In practice, of course, counseling is not readily separated into phases, and these four phases overlap in interview situations.

The Relationship

Encouragement begins through the basic process of focusing on the counselee. When the counselor really attends—con-

centrates on listening not only to what is said but also to how it is said—and is sensitive to verbalized or implied feelings as well as nonverbal cues, he inspires confidence. The counselee experiences, perhaps for the first time, someone who cares about him and who understands the real meaning behind his words. The counselee can see that he is being valued as he is and that no attempt is being made to evaluate him in terms of morals or external standards. The clear communication he gets is, "I value you as a person. You are okay."

The counselor communicates a basic trust and respect and gives the counselee hope. The collaborative relationship, which places an emphasis on mutual alignment of goals, values the counselee because it makes him a full and equal participant in the counseling process. This helps the counselee to accept himself. The counselor neither sets the goals nor abandons responsibility for goal alignment. He establishes a structure in which there is mutual responsibility for progress in the interview.

Motivating the counselee to change is a major therapeutic task. As the counselee feels accepted, he develops a feeling of personal adequacy and responsibility for his course of action, which facilitates the motivation to change.

Diagnosis

Encouragement is a very important concept in the investigative phase of counseling. Diagnosis frequently focuses on psychopathology, liabilities, and deficits. While counselors are interested in the basic approaches to the life tasks and the counselee's mistaken ideas about people and life, counselors should be equally interested in his positive aspects. While exploring the counselee's complaints and current life situations, the counselor can help him become aware of his strengths and power. While the counselee is complaining about a relationship, the counselor might investigate what part the

counselee played in bringing the relationship about. Often the first time a counselee begins to recognize his strength and power is when he is given credit for his ability to get special attention, to control others, or to defeat parents and teachers. The diagnostic phase helps the counselee explore and activate his latent strengths. He sees that he must be a powerful, clever person to be able to keep so many people involved with him, and he thus identifies a strength that he may not have recognized before.

Insight

Insight involves making the counselee aware of why he chooses to function as he does. Developing in him a full awareness of the element of choice can be most encouraging. The counselee may be pessimistic and discouraged about the possibility of change, so it is important that he recognize his creative capacity for interpreting his life situation and for choosing to function in a different manner.

The tentative nature of the counselor's hypothesis about the counselee's purposes and symptoms is encouraging due to the very fact that it is tentative, as this shows that even in this confrontation the counselee must decide whether he agrees with the counselor's hypothesis. The counselor's "Could it be that . . ." or "I have the impression that . . ." place the full responsibility for confirmation on the counselee (Dreikurs 1968).

Empathy should go beyond the counselor's merely reflecting the counselee's feelings. It should involve the counselor's understanding of the intentions and purposes of the counselee's feelings and attitudes.

It is crucial that, as soon as possible, the counselor help the client find some specific place where he can make a desired change and then receive the counselor's encouragement for his progress. The counselor can then determine what

it is the counselee truly seeks to change and use this as a bridge to other types of change. Accomplishing specific intermediate goals is highly encouraging.

Reorientation

As the counselee senses that he is liked, accepted, and understood, he learns to cooperate first with the counselor and then with others. It is important to recognize any efforts on his part to move toward more effective behavior. Insight is only a first step; the counselee is then encouraged to use his power to choose and act. The counselor encourages him in this respect by letting him know it is all right to try.

Counseling is facilitated by getting specific commitments from the counselee—by having him determine a specific act or behavior he will accomplish before the next session or by having him set goals that are attainable and will become success experiences. It is encouraging for the counselee to have the opportunity to change an opinion, express his convictions, and receive recognition for even very slow and simple change.

Through the counselor's focusing on the counselee's assets and his anticipation of success, the counselee grows more secure. As the counselor shows, by his own actions, that he will not be discouraged and that he is not overambitious for the counselee's success, encouragement facilitates the change. ■

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EMPATHY

(Apology to a client from a counselor)

Forgive me.
I have invaded your last sanctuary.
Life for you can never again be the same.
Do not feel threatened.
I will not come here again unless you ask me.
But now we both know that you were hiding
And I cared enough to hunt for you, with you.

APATHY, EMPATHY, SYMPATHY

Apathy is what you have for everyone.
Empathy is what I am supposed to have for you.
Sympathy is what others have for us if
My empathy doesn't overcome your apathy.

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Gestalt therapy interventions for group counseling

WILLIAM R. PASSONS

Much interest has been focused on Gestalt therapy in recent years. Many counselors, however, are unfamiliar with this style of therapeutic intervention. The author offers a brief introduction to some of the basic tenets of Gestalt therapy, noting goals that are similar to those in counseling theories. He also suggests several interventions from Gestalt therapy to be considered for group counseling and discusses their applications.

The growth of group counseling has been influenced by several theoretical frameworks. Rogers (1970) emphasized the value of human interaction in facilitating the actualization of resources available for changing one's perceptual and assumptive world. Behavioral group approaches have been demonstrated as being effective for learning behaviors in problem solving and competency (Krumboltz & Thoresen 1969).

Gestalt therapy, as developed by the late Frederick Perls (Fagan & Shepherd 1970; Perls 1969; Perls, Hefferline & Goodman 1965) also has many contributions to make to group counseling. Many practicing counselors, however, are unaware of the implications of Gestalt therapy for their work.

The purposes of this paper are three-fold. First, a few of the basic tenets of Gestalt therapy will be described and related to counseling. Second, several Gestalt interventions applicable to group counseling will be presented. Finally,

the interventions will be discussed vis-à-vis their nature and application.

A BRIEF OVERVIEW

What commonalities does Gestalt therapy have with counseling theories? Probably the most salient parallel is their common goals.

We have a specific aim in Gestalt therapy, and this is the same aim that exists at least verbally in other forms of therapy, in other forms of discovering life. The aim is to mature, to grow up [Perls 1969, p. 26].

Maturing can be considered as being comprised of two interrelated dimensions. First, maturing is "the transcendence from environmental to self-support [Perls 1969, p. 28]." Given the limits of his level of development, the individual is encouraged to assume responsibility for his own behavior. The second major dimension of maturity is the extent of integration within the individual. A person who is integrated functions as a systematic whole, comprised of feelings, perceptions, thoughts, and a body. There is little energy lost within his organism, and he is capable of responding appropriately (for him) to meet his needs.

In Gestalt therapy the principal means

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for facilitating responsibility and integration is the enhancement of self-awareness. These changes, however, are not forced or programmed. Rather they are allowed. As Perls (1969, p. 17) stated it: "This is the great thing to understand: that awareness per se—by and of itself—can be curative."

Necessarily, then, Gestalt interventions are designed to enhance awareness of the person's "now" experience—emotionally, cognitively, and bodily. As such, many of the interventions lend themselves to group counseling.

SELECTED INTERVENTIONS

The use of these interventions does not license the counselor as a Gestalt therapist. Rather they are offered as alternatives through which the counselor can increase his behavioral repertoire and hopefully his effectiveness.

Enhancing Awareness. There are two periods when the group member's awareness of his "here and now" are especially significant. One is at the start of the session. The other is after a critical event during a meeting. "Now I am aware of . . ." can be useful in both circumstances and can be employed by having members volunteer responses or by going around the group. (In the following examples, L is the group leader and Co is the counselee.)

L: To start today, I'd like each person to finish the sentence "Now I am aware of . . ."
Co_1:   Now I'm aware I am ready to start.
Co_2:   Now I'm aware of my test this afternoon.
L: What are you aware of here in this room?

———

L: Having heard about Jim's situation, I'm wondering what the rest of you are aware of now.
Co: I'm aware that I sometimes feel the same way.

Responding to this intervention teaches the group members to attend to their immediate experience. It can thus be a natural opener and a means to enhance the group's productivity tone at the outset. It can also be useful for diverting attention away from one person and back to the group by having each person reflect on his own experience.

Personalizing Pronouns. Idiomatic English dilutes personal awareness. For example, "How's it going?" is often answered by the impersonal "Things are fine." To circumvent these speech patterns and their deleterious effects on group interaction, counselees can be asked to personalize their pronouns.

Co: We can never please our parents!
L: Can you change the "we" to "I"?
Co: I can never please my parents!

———

Co: It is comfortable in here today.
L: What is the "it"?
Co: Me. I am comfortable in here today.

What can be expected from this intervention? Experience is owned rather than depersonalized through projecting. The awareness of one's own situation and responsibility is differentiated from that of "everyone's." Other group members are more likely to be responsive to a person who is speaking of his own experience.

Making Contact. In the initial phases of the group, members are often reticent about speaking for fear they will not be heard or understood. To facilitate contact, the group leader can invite the counselees to speak directly to a member of the group.

Co: I don't know what to do about . . .
L: Try saying this to someone here.
Co: Okay. Bill, I don't know what to do about . . .

———

Co: Nobody here understands me.

L: Can you ask someone whether or not that is so?

Co: Judy, do you understand what I'm saying?

Several desirable effects can result from this intervention. Speaking *to* someone enhances the speaker's awareness of his feelings by making his message a disclosure that is shared. The person spoken to is engaged directly and is more likely to respond, often leading to an exchange that precipitates responses from other group members. Making contact can be very effective in facilitating interaction that is pivotal to trust and cohesiveness within the group.

Changing Questions to Statements. Many group members use questions to mask messages or keep the focus off themselves. Many questions are not really questions at all but camouflages for statements. The group leader can deal with this situation by helping counselees to change some questions into statements.

Co: Bob, do you *really* think you'll be able to do that?

L: What are you *really* saying to Bob?

Co: I don't think he'll be able to do that.

L: Say that to him.

———

Co: Why are we wasting so much time?

L: Tell us what you are trying to say with that question.

Co: I don't like it that we're wasting time!

Encouraging changes of this type facilitates growth and communication. The questioner learns to accept the responsibility for expressing himself explicitly, and the person questioned is less likely to be confused by the mixed message and can respond more directly to the statement. Making the implicit more explicit can enhance the level of communication within a group.

Assuming Responsibility. There are many ways people attempt to shirk responsibility for their behavior. One of the most prevalent of these is through use of the word *can't.* In many instances "can't" means something other than "unable to." Often it means "won't." Asking counselees to experiment with "won't" as a substitute for "can't" will often result in uncovering the dynamics involved in the impasse. Also, students can be asked to report on an experience of theirs and conclude it with "and I am responsible for it."

Co: I just can't study.

L: Would you try saying "won't" instead of "can't"?

Co: Okay. I just won't study.

L: Can you feel that it is you not doing it? What do you imagine would happen if you did?

———

L: I would like each group member to state something he is doing, thinking, or feeling and complete it with "and I am responsible for it."

Co_1: I am not sure what to say, and I am responsible for that.

Co_2: I am worrying about my boyfriend, and I am responsible for that.

Many counselees experience some relief when "won't" feels more genuine than "can't." They feel more in control and are more ready to examine their fears. Also, a "won't" is often a manifestation of defiance. It is important to help counselees realize and integrate the strength that is evidenced in defiance. Owning and accepting this strength is necessary in order to rechannel it for constructive use. Learning to assume responsibility helps the group members experience themselves as doers rather than persons whose locus of control is external.

Asking "How" and "What." One of

the surest ways to elicit pat answers, intellectualizations, and fruitless rationalizations is to ask counselees why they do or feel something. This is not to imply that understanding the purposes of behavior is not meaningful to counseling; it is. Asking why, however, causes three main problems. First, it often precipitates a search for the prime cause, the supreme insight that will unlock the mysteries of behavior and result in instant and effective behavior change. Second, "why" is too easily answered by "because . . . ," which places responsibility on an external or unknown locus of control. Third, "why" leads the person into "figuring things out" in a cognitive, problem solving fashion that rarely enhances the experiencing and understanding of emotions.

One way to break the "why" chain that many counselees put on themselves is to ask instead "how" and "what."

Co: I don't know why I keep getting into all this trouble.
L: Maybe you could tell us how you do it.

L: Why do you say that to your father?
Co: Because he is mean.
L: What are you trying to do?
Co: Show him he can't push me around.

Asking "how" and "what" permits the individual to get into the experience of his behavior. These words presuppose that he is doing something and facilitate his awareness of the processes he employs as means of doing it. They demonstrate respect for the person's ability to become aware of his motivations through examining his experience. They help the individual realize and accept the responsibility for his behavior.

Sharing Hunches. There are occasions when one member is tempted to react to or interpret the behavior of another.

The manner in which he does is significant for the subsequent interchange. Flat interpretations, even when somewhat valid, will often elicit defensiveness and flight from the subject. To avert this, counselees can be encouraged to preface statements with, "My hunch is . . ." A good preliminary for introducing this intervention is the "I see/I imagine" exercise, in which group members pair up and take turns looking at each other, stating what they see in each other and what they imagine it means. Each pair is observed by the remaining group members. The group leader helps make differentiations between seeing and imagining.

Co: I see you are fidgeting all around, and I imagine you are nervous. I see you are turning red and laughing, and I imagine I was right. I see you looking at me, and I imagine you are wondering what I am going to say next.

Co: Jill, from what you are saying you must be very afraid of your mother.
L: George, Jill didn't mention this fear. Maybe you could tell her that that is your hunch.

The speaker becomes aware that he imagines more than he sees or knows about another person, and he learns to assume responsibility for the projective elements of his perceptions. To say "you are . . ." is stating a quasi-fact that leaves room for acceptance or nonacceptance of a binary nature, thus making denial that much easier. Furthermore, exploration is not facilitated, as a prerogative has been usurped. A statement such as "My hunch is that you are afraid of her" allows the person greater freedom to own and explore his feelings without being coerced or manipulated.

Bringing the Past into the Now. Much of counseling is concerned with past

events. Too often, however, such concerns are dealt with in the past tense and not worked on in the present. A rehashing of history rarely yields changes in thoughts, feelings, or behavior. To prevent being stuck in the past—the safest way to discuss a problem—group members can be asked to bring their feelings into the now.

Co: I felt awful when I hit her.
L: That was then. How do you feel about it now?
Co: Now I don't feel so bad.

———

Co: Boy, was I ever confused. I was running around and didn't know what to do.
L: Larry, could you try to tell us about it as though it were happening now?

Dealing with the current state of the feeling facilitates experiencing it so that it can be clarified, understood, and accepted. A person's becoming aware of how he maintains a feeling from the past can clarify his responsibility for the feeling. He can become aware of how he—and perhaps he alone—is now berating himself or suffering unnecessarily over some past event. Working in the present brings life and excitement into the situation. It also permits exploring for alternative behaviors that are present only in the now.

Expressing Resentments and Appreciations. Gestalt therapy suggests that where there are resentments there are also appreciations. If the latter were not present, there would be no reason for a person to hold onto that which he resents, be it another person or a situation. The reasons for holding on are appreciations. The counselor can facilitate growth in individuals and the group by helping counselees express both their resentments and appreciations. In addition, this intervention can be used to deal with unfinished business during the postmortem of the meeting.

L: Eric, you and George have mentioned a lot of things you dislike about each other.
Co (Eric): Yeah, and they're all true.
Co (George): Oh, baloney! A lot you know.
L: Now can you try to tell each other some things you appreciate about each other?

———

L: I would like to close today's session by asking those members to speak who want to express what they appreciate or resent about today's meeting.
Co$_1$: I resent that it has to end.
Co$_2$: Lou, I appreciated hearing about your . . .

This intervention yields advantages to individuals and the group. The expresser becomes aware of and learns to handle ambivalences. For example, he can sometimes like and dislike the same person, including himself. Owning both experiences helps integrate splits that lead to either-or anxiety. Similarly, the expression of both resentments and appreciations is helpful in confrontations within the group. The confronter experiences the range of his feelings for the other. The person confronted, on hearing what is appreciated about him, is more open to considering the validity of resentments expressed about him.

This procedure can be quite helpful to counselors who are afraid of what might happen when one group member is "attacked" by another. It can be used to temper viciousness and reduce the fear of confrontation. Using this intervention at the end of the meeting can permit individuals to express unfinished business that might otherwise continue to nag and finally develop into a resentment of another person, the group, or oneself.

Using Body Expression. A person operates as a system. All behavior is meaningful and important, including non-

verbal and involuntary expression of the body. The counselor can try to see body expressions as cues of a person's experience—not to interpret certain postures and voice intonations as being associated with certain feelings but rather to enhance awareness and to note how verbal and body expressions match. Inconsistent matches suggest areas for further exploration.

Co: I am really upset over flunking my math test.

L: Are you aware that when you said that you had a slight smile? What is there to smile about in the failure?

Co: It's all over. I'm not mad at Bob anymore.

L: I notice that your hand is clenched as though to make a fist.

Recognizing the lack of a match facilitates confrontation with oneself. A person can more readily deal with his feelings when he becomes aware that he is trying to evade himself. In the case of the boy who flunked his math test, examination of the sly smile could lead to the boy's exclamations of how gleeful he feels in getting back at a pushy mother. Group members can quickly learn to detect discrepancies in verbal and nonverbal communication among themselves and can broaden their scope for understanding one another.

APPLICATIONS IN COUNSELING

These interventions may be used within many counseling orientations. Brammer (1969) indicated that many systems of counseling and therapy hold similar values but "have different styles of carrying them out [p. 194]." Thus, as the counselor develops style, he is well advised to stay informed about the many sources of theoretical and procedural in-

put. Gestalt therapy, with its emphasis on increasing responsibility and integration, shares underlying values with most counseling theories. The interventions presented in this article are "different styles of carrying them out."

Prior to using them in a group, the counselor might practice the interventions on his own behavior to acquaint himself with the internal dynamics involved in their use and to gain a sense of their validity. Learning the interventions experientially will also facilitate modeling them in the group. It is expected that counselors will differ considerably as to which of the interventions they may wish to adopt.

It is important that the interventions, especially one such as substituting "won't" for "can't," be introduced by a statement such as "Let's give this a try and see how it goes." In this way, if the intervention does not match the person's experience, he will not feel as though he failed, since the task was presented in a tentative way to begin with.

Timing is an important element in introducing the interventions. Generally, it is preferable to work them into the group early and at noncritical moments. It is desirable to introduce the interventions one at a time rather than presenting them as a list of "things to do." And perhaps the most crucial element of timing is the readiness of the group member. The counselor should always be sure that he or another group member does not attempt to coerce an individual into doing something he does not want or does not appear ready to do.

Often one of the most valuable outcomes of the interventions is a followup discussion about the experience of using them. For example, in discussing the "making contact" intervention, counselees would share feelings about how they relate to others. This sharing also facilitates trust and thus adds to the counseling potency of the group.

These interventions are generally used by Gestalt therapists with an individual in a workshop setting, while the other persons participate vicariously. Thus, while the interventions have been discussed in this article in terms of their use in group counseling, the counselor may apply them to his work in individual counseling as well.

Gestalt therapy is rich in theory and practice that can be of significant value when judiciously assimilated into counseling. Hopefully, the introduction of these interventions to group counselors can be a beginning to the realization of these resources for our field. ■

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HE, WHO NEVER CRIES SOFTLY IN THE NIGHT
NOR SCREAMS INTO PILLOWS

He came, he said, to see if I could
    tell him what to do—
    "Maybe a different job or somethin'.
    It just don't set right on a man
    workin' like a pig for next to nothin'."

He came, he said,
    " 'Cause I been bothered,
    What with the bosses shoutin' at me
    and the wife an' kids yellin' at home."

And Sunday, I read the news:
    "LOCAL MAN CHARGED WITH CHILD BEATING"

"I meant . . . just to keep 'em from screamin'."

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Guidance in 1995: the possible dream

BETTY LOU N. MARPLE

The contemplation of utopias seems a fruitful intellectual exercise, especially in the field of counseling, which is expanding and changing so rapidly. Who should counsel? In what setting? With what kind of training? Although it is written in a light style, this article, which proposes institutionalized friendship as the all-encompassing idea in the practice of guidance, is deadly serious. The ultimate goal of most people in this country may very well be friendship with one another, and the article describes a method for achieving such a goal that could be in effect within another generation.

Since cave men first made choices about who would live in neighboring caves, the concept of friendship has been with us. And today, in 1995, as a busy century nears its end, the word *friendship* has replaced other terms and has come to be the only word meaning "help from one person to another."

Friendship started becoming institutionalized when a highly industrialized, highly mobile people in the first half of this century began to lose the family, community, and religious ties that had always supported them emotionally. By mid-century the word *relationship,* which described the notion of sharing one's life with another, was so hackneyed in its repetition that it had become meaningless. The once great need for a relationship had apparently disintegrated in the flash of rocket fire and races for the moon.

Our present system of nationwide, institutionalized Friendship is the direct outgrowth of the human and technological advances that have been made over the past 95 years or more. Putting together a splintered society that contained people with incomplete lives became the responsibility first of individual professionals—counselors, psychologists, psychiatrists—and then of masses of these professionals who became part of a network of friends. Technology, which had become the enemy of friendship, became its servant, as, for example, telephone hot lines emerged as substitutes for absent friends. Later, as computer terminals became almost as prevalent as telephones and as instant video reproduction became feasible and widespread, friends came to be instantly available over long distances. Let me illustrate by describing the Friendship organization and activity in my area, located near a large city in a densely populated part of the United States. Most of the description is equally applicable to areas of the country where people live acres and even miles apart from each other—there are still a few places like that left.

YOU CAN GET ANYTHING YOU WANT

Friendship Centers dot the landscape, and they are all identified by a sign. They are in private homes, apartments, grade schools, colleges, houses of wor-

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ship, supermarkets, retail outlets such as drug and department stores, town halls, libraries, firehouses, and private businesses. Even the Internal Revenue Service has one. Friendship is pervasive. It is always and everywhere available.

A Friendship Center never closes, although the use of it varies depending on the climate of the times. Traffic in a Center is heaviest in times of national stress, the greatest of which, now that war has been eliminated, is an election campaign. And Centers report that the usual factors causing personal strain, such as birth, death, and school entrance, cause an upsurge of Center use by many individuals.

Because the Centers are so interwoven into the community fabric, children learn to use them as soon as they can talk, and the miraculous fact that has been discovered in the past few years is that older people, of whom there are more who live longer than ever before, have begun using the Centers less. Scientific research studies are not complete, but there is evidence that the reason for the decrease in Center use by the elderly is the fact that children, as they become adapted to a friendly environment, learn almost automatically how to deal with what were once social problems, such as living with the elderly. Presumably the use of Centers by the elderly will be at its nadir—permanently, one hopes— when a complete generation will have had the benefit of institutionalized Friendship from birth. That time will be well into the 21st century.

TURN, TURN, TURN

The initial proposal for Friendship Centers on a national basis came from those who appeared to need them least and was opposed by those who, as evidenced by their methods of opposition, would derive the greatest benefit from them. Now that they do exist, even those who were once the most strongly opposed cannot find fault with them. Literally everyone uses them, to a greater or lesser degree, and the elimination of much overt human aggression alone must be attributed to the phenomenon of Friendship. And the Centers' success defies the analysis of scientists. Scientists who have observed and tried to draw conclusions have had to shake their heads in wonder and turn away from their studies of Friendship to become participants in the very activity. Having lost the objectivity of outsiders, they have wandered away from precision and accuracy, willing to say only that "it seems to work" or "I have enjoyed my experience with Friendship."

Referrals to Friendship Centers are usually self-referrals, although this is more often the case with people under 25. Physicians, clergymen, and the remaining non-Center psychologists and counselors send people to Centers, but most psychologists and counselors are working in one themselves and merely handle whatever needs walk in the door. Very young children are referred—or, more accurately, carried—to the Centers by parents who realize, as parents are coming to do, that they cannot be everything to their children and that the sooner children develop their own friendships the sooner they will be able to live comfortably with their families.

Friends who work at the Centers come in all types, and those who turn out to be poor friends, for reasons that the professionals are now able to explain, are referred to another Center. The few people who are so intellectually gifted that they care relatively little about human relationships are usually turned down as Friendship leaders. Similarly, those whose gifts are extraordinary physical energy and coordination—the doers —rarely sustain long-term friendships and are therefore unlikely to be employed by the Centers. But these people usually do need and want friends and are able to find them at any Center.

Computer consoles make it possible for an entering applicant to be matched almost instantly with a friend who will give him the kind and amount of Friendship he requires. If the computer makes an error and the friends are not compatible, there are thousands more to try. Or if an appropriate friend is not available in a nearby Center, the audiovisual communications network is used to locate a suitable friend who is only minutes away.

I WANT TO HOLD YOUR HAND

The only requirement for entrance into a Friendship Center is that the first time a person comes in he must be holding the hand of someone he calls a friend —a parent will do, or even someone grabbed off the street. Friendship, it was noticed early in observing the phenomenon, requires that two people communicate with each other, and the simplest way to activate that idea, so that Friendship could progress beyond that basic level, seemed to be through physical communication.

A curious side effect of this activation was noticed shortly after Friendship Centers became pervasive. Although the requirement called for a first-time handholding entrance only, the practice has become almost universal and automatic. Wherever one looks, hand-holding friends are the rule rather than the exception. The scientists tried to study this phenomenon too and threw up their own hands in resignation, saying that "everyone seems to do it" and declaring that no hand-holding distinctions were being made on the basis of age, sex, or race. People just seem not to notice their differences any longer so much as their similarities, and the common need for Friendship seems so strong that kindness tends to prevail between any two people, regardless of their age, sex, or shade of skin. We older people especially are struck by this, although our

children seem not to notice anything unusual about it.

At first those of us who were experienced counselors had some reservations about the Friendship Centers. In addition to being concerned about the possible loss of business to ourselves, we feared that damage to human relationships might result, as untrained individuals could set themselves up as friends, open a Center, and abuse the needs of those seeking help. Both fears have been successfully laid to rest. With regard to the first, most of us are employed full time, or as many hours a week as we care to be, running or assisting in a Friendship Center. We train other employees in the complexities of problem perception and then go back to our jobs as experts in general Friendship. The second fear has been buried with the first, for since we found that some people are better friends than others (the better ones being the former counselors), we have been watchful that our protégés have been responsible friends.

A NEW DAY COMING

The conservatism that once existed internationally in the manifestation of Friendship has begun to vanish. Outward hostilities have ceased between the Russians and the Chinese, the Arabs and the Israelis, and the Moslems and the Hindus, as they did so long ago between the British and the French. But many cultures technologically different from the United States are still loath to trade what they consider their progress for an idea as vague and unproductive of material change as Friendship seems to be, and some countries have not yet decided to allocate top priority to Friendship on a national scale. But mentions of Friendship as an ideal occasionally appear on the inside back pages of *Pravda* and the *Peking Journal,* and this is progress from the time when American Friendship Cen-

ters were first ignored completely and then denounced.

It thus seems that, after thousands of years of recorded history and scores of years of professional attempts to guide and counsel, we have arrived. Technology has provided ways for man to communicate at great distances, and our complex studies of philosophy, history, and psychology remind us that man wants to communicate at close range as well. Terminology seems irrelevant. By whatever name, guidance and counseling in 1995 exist in forms that permit us to look forward to a new century with more joy and hope than ever before. ■

DREAM-SHIPS

In the silent harbors of the night
The traffic of a life moves on;
Where old, care-laden vessels come to dock,
Soured with cargo kept too long at sea
And others leave,
Shove off to breast the surf,
Quickened by the winds of hope
To shores unknown.

As any harbor pilot learns,
The dream-lanes of the night are freighted
With both kinds of shipping—
Shipping in and shipping out.
But a master mariner will say,
Given choice,
He longs for open ocean paced with waves
Curled in the winds of change,
Warmed by the suns of possibility
And unseen destinations.

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PPS director: administrator or counselor educator?

ROBERT E. LINDBERG

What is the primary role of the director of pupil personnel services? Is he a general administrator or a counselor educator? The author of this article feels that there is a great need for more directors who are oriented toward counselor education, and he focuses on three areas in which this type of director can have a great impact on school counseling.

If you were to take a word association test, what response would you give to the term *director of pupil personnel services?* What is the image that you have of the role and function of this position?

The director of pupil personnel services has traditionally functioned as a general administrator rather than a counselor educator. He has been involved mainly with the various guidance functions and the organization and management of these functions, either by his own design or because that role has been prescribed for him by the school. He has worked closely with other administrators but, due to the uniqueness of his position, has often faced a line-staff role dilemma. Humes (1971) and Hill (1965) describe this dilemma rather accurately when they state that although the chief guidance/pupil personnel services officer may be the titular director, the building principal usually has line authority over the functions of the school counselor.

I would like to discuss what I feel is a different and far more exciting and chal-

lenging role for a PPS director—a role that hopefully will encourage PPS directors to consider changes in their present roles and will also encourage more counselor educators to become PPS directors.

There is a critical need for PPS directors who are more oriented toward counselor education. In this capacity the PPS director would tend to be more interested in the dynamics of the counseling process and the impact the counselor, as a person, has on students. He would focus on the people aspects of the counselor's job. As a director, he would evaluate a counselor by observing him in a counseling session rather than by measuring his performance in various guidance functions. Even the director's administrative responsibilities would always be viewed as a means to some counselor education goal.

The counselor education oriented PPS director could have a great impact on school counseling through his influencing of the emphasis in the pupil personnel program and the methods used to reach counseling goals. Three major areas in which a counselor educator type of director can have a significant influence on the direction in which school counseling moves are (a) inservice educa-

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tion, (b) hiring of new personnel, and (c) implementation of new programs.

INSERVICE EDUCATION

Inservice education programs in counseling are probably the most effective vehicles the PPS director can use to develop a new role for himself and at the same time to make an impact on the school counseling program. In this area he can truly function as a counselor educator and develop programs of significant meaning and depth. The professional growth activities offered to Phoenix Union High School System counselors during the 1971–72 school year (involving 96 counselors who serve 30,000 high school students) suggest the types of inservice programs that a school system could develop. Among the programs offered are:

- A practicum to improve counseling skills
- A workshop on a group approach to vocational counseling
- A series of one-week drug abuse workshops focusing on approaches to use in working with a teenage drug abuser
- A practicum on counseling with disadvantaged students
- A seminar on teenage sexuality
- A workshop for head counselors on counselor evaluation
- A one-day seminar for school secretaries to help them understand the role of the counselor
- A seminar on family counseling
- A counseling inservice program for teachers to improve working relationships between teachers and counselors and to give teachers some counseling skills to increase their effectiveness in working with students
- A special summer workshop in group counseling

These inservice programs are designed to supplement the counselors' graduate work in counseling, and counselors completing these programs receive credit toward increments on the salary schedule. It should be remembered that many counselors were assigned to counseling positions before the university counselor education programs developed into what they are today. Many of the counselors completed their training before there was any emphasis on drug abuse, group counseling, family counseling, or counseling with minority students. The inservice programs offer the counselors an accessible, convenient, and cost-free opportunity to upgrade their skills, providing them some assurance that they will be able to continue to improve their professional competencies.

This heavy emphasis on inservice training also has a significant impact on the role of the director. He is now cast into a role in which he is functioning primarily as a counselor educator.

A closer examination of the counseling inservice practicum, which was the first inservice program developed for our counselors, may demonstrate the impact that these programs can have on the role of the director. This practicum was modeled after the kind of practicum program that exists in university counselor education departments. In our district, three of the high school counseling offices were equipped for this practicum experience with a counseling room containing a one-way window for observing the counseling session, audio equipment for listening to it, and remote-control recording equipment for recording it.

Each counselor who volunteered for the program spent two hours a week for nine consecutive weeks in it. Each week the counselor spent the first hour conducting a counseling session with a carefully selected student and the second hour discussing the session with the PPS director. During the critique of the counseling session, the emphasis was on developing the counselor rather than making a formal evaluation. A positive,

supportive, and constructive approach was used in reaching this goal.

While the feedback from the counselors indicated that the program improved both their counseling effectiveness and their roles as counselors, the special interest we are concerned with here is the effect it had on the role of the PPS director. First, the practicum, in which the director spent four mornings a week, provided the dramatic move necessary for him to make a major change in his role. Second, as the director became involved in the project, some of his other district level responsibilities that had involved pupil personnel services only indirectly were assigned to other staff areas, and the director found himself spending more time in direct pupil personnel service activities. Third, his involvement with the practicum gave subtle support to school counselors who wanted to spend more time counseling students and consulting with parents and less time performing routine clerical duties.

HIRING OF NEW PERSONNEL

One of the key functions in any pupil personnel services program is the hiring of new counseling personnel. Whoever shares the responsibility for the selection of the counseling personnel will have a tremendous influence on the direction of the counseling programs; all PPS directors should therefore insist on much direct involvement in this area.

A principal who has had no counseling training or a PPS director who has not done any counseling for 10 or 15 years may hire a different type of counselor from the one who would be hired by a director who is himself very involved in the counseling process. Since the type of counselor hired will greatly determine the type of counseling program that evolves, people who understand the counseling process and the personal qualities necessary for successful counsel-

ing should be in positions where they are at least partly responsible for the employment of counselors. They should also have a little of the salesman in them to recruit the best counselors available, since many top-notch counselors feel that a high school counseling position is too restrictive and as a result go to other agencies.

A special concern in the area of personnel selection is the hiring of minority counselors. If the PPS director is committed to the need for more minority counselors, he will want to strengthen a program in this area, and he is in a good position to do so. Stepped-up hiring of minority counselors may not occur, however, unless some positive steps are taken. The two main steps our district has taken that have netted positive results are early hiring and the establishment of a minority counselor training program.

Early Hiring

Rather than waiting until April or May to begin hiring candidates for the following school year, we were able to obtain permission from the board of education to start hiring minority counseling candidates in November and December. We could not identify specific vacancies at that time, but we knew that we had been hiring from five to seven new counselors every year, so we were willing to gamble that the openings would develop. By having this head start, we were able to make early contact with the outstanding minority counselor candidates, interest them in our program and district, and offer them contracts.

Minority Counselor Training Program

The second method our district has used is to encourage those of our own minority teachers who have demonstrated an ability in relating with students to become qualified as counselors. To implement this concept we started our own inservice education program in counseling, includ-

ing a counseling practicum experience. Many of the minority teachers, after completing this program, started a university program leading to counselor certification. Occasionally we employ these teachers in counseling positions before they have completed all of their course work if we feel they are ready to assume counseling positions and if they are continuing their university education. This program is described in more detail elsewhere (Lindberg & Wrenn 1972).

As a result of these two approaches, the Phoenix Union High School System has been able to employ 16 minority counselors (out of a total of 23 counselors) within the past three and one-half years; 14 of these counselors are still employed with us.

The counselor education oriented PPS director may even wish to employ an activist minority candidate. Perhaps he will search for the candidate who fully understands the identity crisis that many blacks and Chicanos face and will seriously consider the person who will take a more activist stance in moving for desired change within our educational institutions. We need minority counselors who are change agents and PPS directors who will hire them.

IMPLEMENTATION OF NEW PROGRAMS

A PPS director in a university setting can develop many new concepts and approaches to implement a school counseling program. Unfortunately, the same ivy halls that free him to develop these programs can restrict him in their implementation. A person who is within the system can get the program started and also be on the scene to make sure that it becomes ongoing and continuous. Change is a difficult thing; in education, status quo is often king. Any new idea is examined for its faults, while any current practice is automatically defended for its strengths. A new idea needs approval from far more than 51 percent of the people involved; in fact, one loud "no" will often kill a change and cause a return to the status quo. Change agents have to be on the firing line to see these changes occur.

The need to implement programs is exemplified by the night counseling program in the Phoenix Union High School System. The original proposal for this program was that the counseling offices of each of the 10 high schools be open one evening a week. Features of the program were: (a) the counselors from the inner-city schools spending their evenings in the community; (b) family counseling sessions being established for the parents; (c) special seminars being developed in areas such as drug abuse, career selection, and problems of raising a teenager; and (d) special group counseling programs being expanded for interested teenagers.

When this evening program was being discussed, it had enthusiastic philosophical support at all levels, and plans were drawn up based on this support. However, when the plans became reality and implementation was to begin, many questions arose. Will counselors need different skills for certain aspects of the programs? How will these skills be obtained? How will the compensatory time be scheduled? Will there be additional budgeting for the program? What about building and personnel security? Will this program serve students better than the regular program? These questions had to be answered before the program could proceed. A PPS director with counselor education orientation needs to be in the center of the activity to help implement new programs and bring concepts into reality. ∎

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The School as a Surrogate Family

ROLFFS S. PINKERTON
FRANCIS T. MILLER

With the advent in 1963 of comprehensive community mental health centers, consultant-psychotherapists began actively exploring and testing the strengths and potentials of local community "front-line forces," namely, schools, social services agencies, ministers, and other services that could aid in coordinated treatment efforts. Rather than seeing these resources as meddlers that muddy psychotherapeutic waters, as has historically been the view, many community-based psychotherapists are recognizing the necessary contribution of these resources. This article reports two case studies that underscore the close consultation liaison between psychotherapists and one community agency: the school.

The basic thesis in each case is that significant others in the natural environment of the patient can play the major psychotherapeutic role in treatment. Such a thesis is not new to the annals of psychotherapy. For example, the approach of Freud in the "Little Hans Case" (Jones, 1955) involved the father as the primary therapy agent. Indeed, much therapy with children utilizes the family as the therapy agent in the natural environment. In such cases psychotherapeutic strength has been found in the family. Frequently, however, to the dismay of psychotherapists, one encounters families with either very little or

negative therapeutic potential. In such cases the therapist's only ally, and perhaps the best he could have, might be one or more community front-line helping agencies.

In the two cases described here the families were judged as being unable to provide needed therapeutic support, and with the permission of the parents the school system was sought out as the major therapy aid. During the course of treatment in each case, the school, in effect, became a surrogate-psychotherapeutic family. Each case involved a different mental health clinic as a collaborator with the school.

THE CASE OF KEVIN

Kevin was a 15-year-old sophomore referred to the local community mental health center by his high school counselor. Because of a recent history of confused thought, hallucinations (visual and auditory), and suicidal intent, he was

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hospitalized in a nearby state hospital for 15 days. A diagnosis of schizophrenia was later made, and Kevin was discharged on a major tranquilizer.

Following hospitalization, Kevin's readjustment to the community was poor, and he refused the services of the local mental health clinic. Prior to the close of school in May, his adjustment deteriorated and he exhibited symptoms of detachment and confusion. He was finally persuaded by his high school counselor to return to the mental health center.

Subsequently he was seen at the mental health center and again placed on the medication he had discontinued. Initial treatment efforts were quickly successful at a symptomatic level; his confusion was reduced, he no longer hallucinated, and his behavioral status improved. His symptoms, however, soon began to intensify again. His mother seemed to be instrumental in causing this reintensification of symptoms. For example, she threatened him by saying that if he did not behave at home and go regularly to the mental health center she would make certain that the clinic would have him sent either to the state hospital or to jail. When these threats were made, Kevin became very angry at his therapist and began missing appointments. He became distrustful, again discontinued his medication, and finally dropped out of therapy.

No further contact was made with Kevin until early in the next academic year. At that time an initial effort was made to work with him indirectly through the school counselor, but the effort met with little success. Kevin was finally suspended for two weeks because of fighting. He obtained a job but quickly lost it. He came to the center as a walk-in patient in mid-November, following an accusation by his mother that he had taken $100 from his grandmother.

At this point it became apparent that Kevin had few environmental resources with which the clinic could work. His only parent was an angry, detached woman who was away from home much of the day and night. She could provide no controls for Kevin and was unable to structure a therapeutic environment for him. She refused to become involved with the clinic and would not see the therapist. Moreover, she countered any therapeutic liaison that was attempted and had already once precipitated Kevin's withdrawal from involvement with the mental health center. In staff discussion it was decided that an intense, single-case consultation program be started with the school system. The program was to involve four elements of liaison: (a) consultation with Kevin's teachers, (b) consultation with the high school counselor, (c) direct liaison with the county adult education program, and (d) consultation with the teacher of vocational training.

Consultations with Kevin's Teachers. The primary contact person was the school counselor, and it was through her efforts that two one-hour consultation sessions with Kevin's three teachers were arranged. At these times Kevin's diagnosis was explained and a simplified review of the dynamics of schizophrenia given. Teacher roles in the treatment were worked out. The intent was to assign the teachers specific therapeutic roles that would be meaningful but not burdensome.

Kevin's need for privacy and structure were emphasized. It was agreed that he would be allowed to seat himself at the rear of the classroom, where he could maintain a semblance of withdrawal from other students. His daily lesson assignments were written out in a very structured manner, enumerating the tasks required. While a need to show rapport and kindness was emphasized, it was urged that interpersonal closeness be controlled in a way that would not increase Kevin's anxiety. His teachers were urged to let him leave the classroom when he felt acute anxiety and stress. It

was agreed that on those occasions he could leave quietly and see the counselor.

This approach was in sharp contrast to previous demands on Kevin to "get with it" and "shape up." Moreover, seeing the counselor was different from being sent to the dean of students, a tight-laced, aggressive man who believed in the "tough" approach. Thus, the response of one important environmental element was altered with reference to the boy.

Consultation with the High School Counselor. A relationship with the high school counselor had been well established through consultative efforts with the high school the previous year. She was a very supporting and accepting woman. Above and beyond this, she was generally sophisticated in her knowledge of psychological treatment procedures. The counselor became, in effect, a surrogate parent for this youngster. Consultation was directed toward helping her provide support and structure at school. She was available to Kevin when he reached high levels of anxiety and tension. At such times she listened, supported, and provided structure when appropriate. At the same time, however, she was firm in emphasizing his need to complete assignments, go to class, and behave in realistic and responsible ways. Kevin responded positively to her availability and to her structuring effort.

Direct Liaison with the County Adult Education Program. As holiday seasons approached (both Christmas and Easter), it was apparent that a continued structured environment would be greatly beneficial to Kevin's continued therapy.

The previous summer, when Kevin had had unstructured time on his hands, he had invariably begun to behave in inappropriate ways. To provide the structure needed to avert a repetition of this kind of behavior, Kevin and his therapist outlined a projected table of events for the vacation period. This involved specific hourly suggestions to which he agreed. The most important

block of time involved the local county adult education center. It was arranged for Kevin to spend five hours each day at this center, going through remedial program texts that could supplement his learning at school. During his therapy sessions, progress was reviewed and new goals for the coming week were defined.

Consultation with the Teacher of Vocational Training. Finally, in early spring, Kevin became increasingly involved in a vocational trade course he was taking and began to identify strongly with his teacher. This teacher was consulted in a manner similar to that established for his classroom teachers. Again the need for continued structure and support was emphasized.

During the academic year Kevin's grades improved from three F's and a D to three C's and a D. He was never suspended and his acting out became insignificant. Also, he began to formulate for himself plans that were realistic. At the close of the year he decided to pursue mechanic's training with the air force. He did so. Since then, Kevin has returned twice to the mental health center on home leaves. He indicated on last contact that he was doing well. He admitted to entertaining occasional impulsive and irrational thoughts but recognized that to act them out would be irresponsible. He has earned the rank of Airman, Second Class and is pleased with his current adjustment. In short, the therapy, which included the structuring of an environment, proved successful in this case.

THE CASE OF DONNA

Donna was a sixth grade student who had until recently been doing average or above average work in school. She came to the attention of the elementary counselor when a fellow student reported that Donna was writing notes threatening suicide and was complaining that life was not worth living. When interviewed by

the counselor, Donna was tearful and apathetic and spoke freely of feelings of hopelessness.

Donna's narrative dated the onset of symptoms to Christmas, when she did not get the horse she was promised as a present. After that she became very angry and morose and began to perform less well in school. Her depression was ignored by her mother and shouted about by her father. A brief social history gathered by the counselor presented a family picture of a periodically employed alcoholic father and a mother with a very strong need to "keep the peace."

Counselor interviews with Donna suggested that her obsessive fixation on the horse was symbolic of her need to identify with a male figure as an aid in making the transition to more appropriate boy-girl relationships. The father was emotionally unsuitable for such purposes; Donna's efforts to win his recognition met with rebuffs.

In consultation with the counselor it was decided that the school might help meet Donna's needs. Donna was seen on a frequent, self-demand basis by the elementary counselor—a woman. At the same time a search was made among the teacher ranks to find a strong, warm, and interested male to serve as a "substitute for a horse." One was found. A symbolic surrogate family was thus established.

The substitute role of the male teacher was structured simply as that of an interested and helpful adult. He was to avoid probing and be interested solely in the day-to-day occurrences in Donna's life. Donna's interests were to be the focal point of the discussions that were held three times a week immediately after school. After the meetings with the male teacher began, meetings with the female counselor were decreased voluntarily by Donna.

As one might expect, the initial interviews with the male teacher involved mostly the child's obsession with the horse. By the fifth meeting, however, the horse was no longer a major topic of conversation; it was replaced by Donna's interest in organizing a girls' softball team. The teacher and the child worked out the details of organization together, arranged for the necessary equipment, recruited girls, and initiated the program.

Moving from the focus on the softball team, Donna began to talk about boys and her lack of relationship with them. She finally became interested in one boy, cultivated her interest, and had her first date to a school party. During this time the teacher was counseled to begin psychological withdrawal from Donna. He accomplished this by redefining the meetings to be on a demand basis rather than on a rigid schedule. Donna began to miss some meetings. Suddenly she had three boyfriends at the same time, then none, then two. She coped with emotional crises.

In summary, a family pattern was developed within the context of the school that enabled a child to work through—at least once—a necessary developmental problem. The family situation of the child was such that the problem could not be worked through using the family as a resource.

DISCUSSION

We feel that the treatment of both these students and the more formal rehabilitation of Kevin could not have been effectively carried out without the active and concentrated involvement of the school. In each case major psychotherapeutic roles were assumed by school personnel. These roles, in turn, were developed through continued consultation between school personnel and psychologists interested in the students. The major approach with Kevin was derived from the basic format of Glasser's (1965) reality therapy. The approach with Donna was to develop and provide a needed life situation as an aid in working through a necessary developmental problem.

In each case the mental health worker (psychologist) was faced with a situation in which there were no available therapeutic resources in the home. These resources had to be found elsewhere. The focus of the consultation was to develop with teachers and counselors what Gendlin (1968) calls the "essential sub-processes" of psychotherapy. Briefly, these are (a) a willingness to listen and (b) an honesty of interaction about ongoing behavior. The consultative process helped to support the maintenance of these essential sub-processes.

The cases of Kevin and Donna illustrate the use of the much-needed collaborative relationships among community helping resources. These cases also illustrate the problems of defining roles, responsibilities, and boundaries for human service workers in community settings. ■

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A Workshop for the Support Staff

CECELIA H. FOXLEY

We all know individuals among our non-professional personnel who, because of natural abilities and personal interest rather than education and training, already perform informally, or on a less structured basis, many of the same activities as professionals. The secretary in a counseling office who listens objectively and patiently to student problems and is adept at making appropriate referrals is one example. The night watchman in a dormitory who is accessible to students during professional staff off-hours and enjoys rapping with them over a midnight cup of coffee is another. The admissions window clerk who has been with the institution for a number of years in various capacities and is especially helpful to new students with their many questions . . . the knowledgeable administrative assistant in the financial aid office . . . the empathic receptionist in the student health service . . . and the list goes on.

We also know that some students, particularly at our larger institutions, get through school with the help and guidance of such support personnel without ever having contact with the professional advisors and counselors. These facts support the contention that inservice training and opportunities for development should be given the support staff, as they comprise a large component of the student-staff interface of an institution and have widespread student contact.

Many of these support personnel are indigenous to the surrounding community and minority cultures, which may enable them to be more effective with

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difficult-to-reach students than the professional advisor or counselor can be. As nonprofessional staff members usually view the educational and helping processes differently from the way the professional staff do, including them in some of the professionals' work and responsibilities may set the climate for change within the office, department, or institution.

For these reasons the University of Minnesota undertook a human relations and communication training program for the entire student affairs support staff during the summer of 1971.

THE PARTICIPANTS

A total of 233 persons from the various student affairs offices—counseling, admissions and records, financial aid, health service, drug information service, student housing, student union and activities, planning and counseling center for women, foreign student advisors, and student life studies—attended the training program in small groups of from 15 to 20. Each of these groups contained a combination of individuals from the various student affairs offices and included such support staff as secretaries, receptionists, window clerks, food service staff, maintenance staff, night watchmen, assistants, and supervisors—all of whom have considerable contact with students.

THE PROGRAM

The training program consisted of one-day workshops entitled "Creating a Student-Centered Climate." A workshop planning committee included representatives from the various levels of support staff, professional staff, and students. The objectives of the workshops were to (a) assist the support staff in developing their communication skills and counseling functions as they relate to students and staff; (b) help them gain a better understanding of minority students, foreign students, and individual human differences; and (c) give them opportuni-

ties to practice working with a variety of situations and problems and learn more about the functions of the various student affairs offices.

The workshops were to provide experiences for: (a) effective communication and active listening, (b) work with people of different backgrounds, (c) case study exercises, and (d) self-assessment.

During the communication and active listening portion, basic fundamentals of communication were presented, and participants then (in groups of three) practiced such skills as active listening, giving and receiving effective feedback, and interviewing.

Students representing the minority and foreign student groups on campus participated in the section on working with people of different backgrounds. Each of the students gave a brief presentation on his experiences at the university and described some problems he or she had experienced because of cultural and background differences. An open question-and-answer session followed.

The case study exercises gave the participants a chance to think through and explore with others how they would handle a variety of problems and situations. Based on actual incidents, the case studies dealt with such problems as a militant black student making demands on a transcript clerk, an ineffective professional staff member sloughing off work, a foreign student who did not speak English very well needing financial aid, a frightened and near-crying freshman during registration, an emotionally upset student in the dormitory, and a rude and abrupt receptionist in the health service office. The appropriateness and abilities of support staff and professional staff regarding the handling of each of the situations were discussed.

In the self-assessment portion of the program participants were asked to list their strengths and the areas in which they needed improvement in working

with both students and staff. These were then shared in groups of four or five members, and plans were made to work on the areas needing improvement.

REACTIONS

The participants filled out an evaluation form immediately following the workshop. Most participants felt that the workshops were helpful, motivating, encouraging, and long overdue. For many of them this was the first time they had been "treated as professionals." Many commented on the open, relaxed atmosphere and the opportunity to share concerns and problems with people from other offices. Others appreciated the chance to practice communication and problem solving skills. A few felt that the full-day workshop was a bit long and might be improved by offering two half-day sessions instead. All the participants felt that the workshops should be continued in some form or another. Some of their suggestions were: (a) having workshops for new support staff only; (b) holding sessions for professional staff for the purpose of helping them work more effectively with support personnel; (c) scheduling joint sessions for professional and support personnel to work through relationships and responsibilities.

While there was no formalized measurement of back-on-the-job results of the workshops, we received report after report from students and professional staff that the support staff in the student affairs offices were more helpful, cooper-ative, and confident than they had been before they attended the workshops.

IMPLICATIONS

These workshops are not seen as ends in themselves but as a beginning of a training and development process. At the very least, they are an indication that more can be done to facilitate the growth of support staff, enabling them to do a more effective job in working with students and other staff members.

Inservice training programs designed to increase the effectiveness of support personnel could be very useful in a variety of settings. Since support personnel in other educational institutions and service agencies (public schools, hospitals, clinics, community and mental health centers, inner-city development centers, etc.) perform functions similar to those of support personnel in college student services, training programs such as the one described here may be appropriate in those settings also.

Human relations and communication training has helped nonprofessional staff members feel more confident in their work and more necessary to the operation of their office, school, or agency. This in turn makes them more cooperative with other staff members and more helpful to students and clients. Training programs such as the University of Minnesota's can strengthen existing services through better use of manpower and can also set a climate for change within an institution. ■

ACT Results in Prose

ROBERT D. McCOY

JAMES W. ELLIS

Many colleges and universities require a potential applicant to take the American College Test (ACT) as a prerequisite for admission. Some further stipulate that a certain composite score has to be attained before various criteria in the admissions process can be actuated for assessment. And still others demand ACT scores for

use in their placement procedures. Louisiana State University in New Orleans (LSUNO), because of its open-door admissions policy, belongs to the last group.

The Junior Division and the Counseling Center at LSUNO, aware of the fact that the $6.50 ACT student fee pays for more than the test administration (for example, the accumulation and dissemination of statistical data from ACT to the university), decided to start communicating ACT results to the faculty through prose. In this way each instructor, though he might not be a statistician, could utilize some of ACT's findings and possibly structure his classes accordingly. Moreover, the LSUNO student would no longer be shortchanged monetarily, since it was he who was paying for part of our annual ACT service in the first place.

Trying to solicit interest from every department in the university community, we decided to distribute our *ACT Report* on a weekly basis and design it according to content and scholastic appeal. The second author selected the statistical data for the week, and the first author placed it in the vehicle of prose. This was our first communiqué:

FROM: Counseling Center

TO: Faculty and Staff

DATE: May 18, 1971

This communication is the first in a series intended to disseminate ACT information compiled by the Junior Division on the freshman classes of 1965 and 1969 at LSUNO. The purpose of this venture is not to impress you with statistics but to present by way of prose a comparison between the two classes.

Hot pants are in, hair styles are longer, and students are switching deodorant with abandon. But these are only out-ward appearances. What do people sitting in your classrooms think on the inside? Is the label "double remedial" misleading? Are students' ACT scores true indicators of future grade point averages? Do group educational and vocational goals change? These are some of the areas we shall concentrate on in this study.

Let's start out with intended educational goals.

In 1965 one-seventh of our freshman class (enrollment: 1,270) listed social, religious, and educational fields as their educational majors; 1969 (enrollment: 2,728) saw one-fourth do so. Business and finance attracted one-tenth of our 1965 frosh, compared with one-seventh of their 1969 counterparts. Medicine majors, in the meantime, dropped from one-seventh in 1965 to one-ninth in 1969. The scientific fields remained relatively constant, with one-tenth of both classes following these pursuits. So did arts and humanities, with this same fraction in 1965 and 1969. Even though educators, parents, and the news media have expressed concern over the increasing number of students entering college with no educational or vocational goals, LSUNO's ACT results show that one-fourth of both our 1965 and 1969 freshmen were "undecided."

P.S. Please remember that the fractions used in these reports represent intentions rather than consummated actions.

From feedback received and from our own post-analysis, we discovered that a few corrections were in order. First of all, the faculty desired a simple but more professional lead-in. Second, the conversion of percentiles into fractions created a maze of sentence confusion; a happy medium of prose and short statistical tables was suggested. And third, the information contained in the postscript should have been incorporated into the body of the material.

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The fifth *ACT Report* corrected the three shortcomings of the first.

FROM: Counseling Center
TO: Faculty and Staff
DATE: June 15, 1971

Numbers sometimes belie interpretation. A mathematician thinks of 1 2 3 4 as being an "arithmetic progression," whereas a historian pictures Europe bursting from the Middle Ages around 1234.

How do our students interpret numbers in mathematics and history? And how do the numbers interpret them?

Last week we discussed the campus transportation plans and distributions and percentile ranks of ACT English test scores of the 1965 and 1969 freshmen at LSUNO. Our fifth report focuses on the distributions and percentile ranks of ACT Mathematics and Social Studies test scores for these same students.

The ACT Mathematics Test Results of the 1965 and 1969 LSUNO freshmen were as follows:

| | 1965 | | 1969 | |
Score	No. of Students	%	No. of Students	%
1–18	559	44	1,252	45
19–24	439	34	870	32
25–36	282	22	639	23

How About a Game of Darts?

RICHARD EHLERT

Russ looked over his shoulder at the clock. "Don't you think it's about time for a game of darts?" We had been talking for most of the period, and there was about 10 minutes left before the bell.

"Right. You sound like you're ready for a good battle." Russ took the yellow

The ACT Social Studies Test Results of the 1965 and 1969 LSUNO freshmen were as follows:

| | 1965 | | 1969 | |
Score	No. of Students	%	No. of Students	%
1–15	274	21	905	33
16–20	392	31	643	23
21–25	382	30	774	28
26–36	232	18	439	16

The LSUNO faculty and staff seemed to be pleased with the *ACT Report* as it matured in style and content. In fact, some of them actually looked forward to the bright gold sheet they received in the campus mail each week. After we left the class profile and advanced into subgroupings and summary analysis data, phone calls came into the office requesting further treatment on certain areas of research. And some faculty members started saving our communiqués in three-holed notebook binders.

What we did can be started anywhere. One does not need the American College Test to begin such an endeavor. Elementary and high school guidance departments can present the data of achievement or aptitude tests to their faculty members in a pleasant, readable form. Whatever measurement is selected, communicating it in prose should be tried. For isn't communication one of the goals of our profession? ∎

darts, I took the green, and we backed up against the door to begin our game.

After working with some young children during the summer in play therapy sessions, I began to wonder what similar therapy methods could be used with older children. Many of the play therapy

activities I had seen used with the young children seemed too childish for junior and senior high students. I wanted to find some game or activity with fairly universal appeal and interest that could be used in the school setting. If the student could find enjoyment in it, perhaps it could be used for behavior reinforcement and also for enhancing the counseling relationship. The game of darts seemed to be an activity that might fit these needs.

There are many students for whom neither verbal nor token material reinforcement is effective in bringing about behavioral change. Younger children may respond to such "rewards" as pencils, buttons, candy, or posters, but I have found such token rewards ineffective with older youth. Perhaps the older students do not see them as adequate compensation for performing the desired behaviors. The dart game, however, has been effective with many of these students, and it is very simple to use in the counseling setting.

CASE STUDIES

Roger was a seventh grade student with average academic ability but with a history of low grades and a short attention span. During the first counseling session he noticed the dart board in my office— a four-by-four-foot board with yellow, orange, and red circles is hard to miss— and I explained that some students who were not achieving as they should or who were causing problems in class could play darts with me if their grades and behavior improved. (The explanation I gave to each student about the use of the dart board always related to his problem, so in Roger's case I mentioned both his areas of difficulty.) Roger was interested in playing darts, so we discussed his

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grades and behavior and agreed that improvement would mean dart time in future counseling sessions. Roger showed improvement in successive weeks, and we spent varying amounts of time playing darts, according to his behavior change and improved grades. Together we evaluated his improvement and decided on the dart playing time each week.

Bob was in the eighth grade and had few friends. He was quite withdrawn, and counseling sessions with him often had many periods of silence. After several sessions I asked him if he wanted to play darts for the few minutes that were left in the session, explaining that other students seemed to enjoy it. He agreed to play. At first he was hesitant and reserved in his playing, but he eventually became more interested and aggressive in the game. Through this medium he became more verbal and was able to talk more freely about his social problems. Darts was a form of play therapy in this relationship. This activity fostered Bob's self-expression, hopefully leading toward his gaining the desired social skills.

Denise looked into the counseling office on her way to class and wondered if she could play darts with me. I told her briefly why I had the dart board in my office and then played one game with her. Students like Denise who stop by the counseling office showing interest and asking questions about darts often ask if they can talk with me about something at a later date. The activity seems to make some students more receptive to counseling and facilitates self-referrals.

Darryl peeked into the counseling office, looked at the dart board, and said he had heard that some students had been playing darts with me. He wondered if he could play too. I explained the use of the board, and he said he would like to talk with me and work out a deal. We talked the next day, and Darryl decided he would try to improve his grades. Before leaving, he played a few games of darts with me and set up

an appointment for the next week, when we would see if his grades had improved. Many students who stop in the counseling office to ask about darts are similar to Darryl; they are having problems with grades, are having difficulty with acceptable school behavior, or just want to talk about something. Well-adjusted students seem less likely to be inquisitive about the dart board.

WHY THE GAME SCORES

Playing darts in the counseling session can be helpful in many situations. It can help some students relax with the counselor and facilitate the building of rapport. Some students are able to express themselves more easily and informally as they play, and as a result of having opened the door to self-expression are able to be more open and honest in their feelings and emotions at other times. Many students look forward to being rewarded with a few games for having made some behavior change. Some self-referrals were even initiated by students who had heard about other students playing darts with the counselor.

Certainly there are many other techniques that would be effective for use in the counseling setting to help students bring about desired behavior change, including other types of games, rewards, and privileges. Although no formal study has been done to evaluate the technique described here, many dart playing students have raised their grades, changed undesirable behavior, acquired social skills, and achieved goals. Aside from some kidding the counselor might have to take from the staff about how he uses his time, he will probably find dart playing downright fun—and therapeutic too. ■

Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

George Washington University

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

NSSFNS Research Reports, Vol. 1, No. 1, January 1972. Survey Research Services, National Computer Systems, 4401 West 76th Street, Minneapolis 55435. 110 pp. $5.00.

The National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students, a nonprofit organization founded in 1946, assists "black high school students in their efforts to obtain continuing education and financial aid by means of a college advisory and referral service" without charge to students or high schools. Prepared by the NSSFNS staff, this new publication presents detailed tabulated data under the title "A National Profile of Black Youth: Class of 1971." The sample of over 54,000 students was tapped for a large number of variables, the major ones including sex, region of residence, family income, dependents in family, head of household, father's occupation, mother's occupation, extracurricular activities, probable major field of study, and probable career. Finer factors reported include—among many others—desire to be someone else, important objectives in life, and "sacrifice" one might make to go to college.

An Introduction to the Sociology of Learning by Sarane Spence Boocock. Houghton Mifflin, 110 Tremont Street, Boston 02107. 1972. 370 pp. $8.95.

Known to many P&G'ers for her work on simulation games, sociologist S. S. Boocock steams along on a forceful tour of education as it is and might be. With her formidable scholarship, she intrepidly explores the design of educational research, interrelationships of students and families, school and classroom role relationships, the adolescent society, the community and the school board, and crosscultural comparisons. "The inescapable conclusion," she declares, ". . . is that the major determinants of school performance are factors external to the school. That is, things outside the school matter more than the things inside in explaining what and how well children learn." Take this tour if you can handle a heady altitude.

A Degree and What Else? by Stephen B. Withey. McGraw-Hill, 1221 6th Avenue, New York 10020. 1971. 147 pp. $5.95.

Subtitled "Correlates and Consequences of a College Education," this review of research was prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research. A refreshing departure from the one-dimensional "more education, more money" emphasis, this report assesses such variables as job satisfaction, values and attitudes, use of mass media, political and consumer behavior, and marriage and child rearing. Most of the findings, presented with proper caution, favor college attendance. Due regard is given, however, to the gaps widened between generations, between "liberals" and "conservatives," between those who attend college and those who don't. Does a degree create differences in kind?

Teachers' Guide to Group Vocational Guidance by Bruce Shertzer. Bellman Publishing Co., P.O. Box 172, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138. 1971. 74 pp. $5.55.

This slim 8½×11 volume is packed with practical teaching material for use by "teachers with little or no training in guidance" as well as by counselors. Forty-one lesson plans are presented covering the world of work, knowing yourself, and securing a job and progressing in it. The material is intended for a separate group guidance course, subject

matter course units, or a homeroom program —all honorable intentions, despite a cynic's remark that "a homeroom is a house in which the principles of guidance are prostituted." Shertzer supplies introductions, readings, and an appendix of pertinent items.

The Law and Personnel Testing by William C. Byham and Morton Edward Spitzer. American Management Association, Inc., 135 West 50th Street, New York 10020. 1971. 238 pp. $14.00.

P&G'ers who can pay the price could profit from this penetrating probe of procedures used in employee selection. "The Law" in the title alludes to the authors' particular concern with equal employment opportunity for minority groups, women included (paradoxically, a majority yet excluded). The title fails to make explicit the extent to which the book goes beyond pros and cons of test use in selection. While these are covered in thorough, scholarly fashion—and in language appropriate to the intended "businessman" audience—the book embraces broader topics: "When Not to Test," "Other Procedures for Obtaining Information" (interviews, application blanks, background questionnaires, reference checks, and job-simulation techniques), and "Recruitment," which can "set the stage for meaningful selection." Sound supplementary reading for a guidance testing course.

Human Intelligence edited by J. McVicker Hunt. Transaction Books, Rutgers—The State University, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903. 1972. 283 pp. $6.50 hardbound, $2.95 paperback.

This is one of a series of anthologies of *Transaction* magazine articles pertaining to a particular topic. The topic in this instance is much broader than the title, which gives insufficient indication of the contents. Concepts covered include genetics, heritability, educability, competence, creativity, social class, self-fulfilling prophecy, retardation, arbitrary job qualifications, and others not implicit in the title. Hunt contributes one article and a very brief introduction. Readers unfamiliar with *Transaction*'s stimulating

style could make its acquaintance through this book's 13 substantive offerings.

A Handicapped Child in the Family: A Guide for Parents
by Verda Heisler. Grune & Stratton, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York 10003. 1972. 160 pp. $7.95.

Herself handicapped from childhood polio, psychotherapist Heisler was asked to conduct groups for parents of children with cerebral palsy. Out of this experience she prepared the present book, the content of which is generalizable to parents of children with other handicaps. Medical and related advances, by sustaining and maintaining life, have increased the number of families with handicapped children. Parents will find the book less a "guide" than a tour of the group therapy sessions, with descriptions of the interactions perhaps permitting vicarious participation by the reader. Thus offering the value of bibliotherapy, the book may be a boon for many a perplexed parent.

Counseling, Guidance, and Personnel Services
by Harold F. Cottingham. J. G. Ferguson, 6 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 60602. 1971. 173 pp. $3.95.

Subtitled "A Topical Outline with Selected Readings and Bibliographies," this 8½×11 workbook is intended for graduate students "or others wishing to become acquainted with guidance, and counselors needing to update their knowledge." It applies 14 basic textbooks to 11 units covering topics from guidance definitions and development, through various aspects of the counseling and guidance process, to research, professional preparation, and trends and issues. The author's workmanlike job is marred by an excess of typographical errors.

Identifying Suicide Potential
edited by Dorothy B. Anderson and Lenora J. McLean. Behavioral Publications, 2852 Broadway, New York 10025. 1971. 112 pp. $7.45.
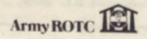
While the price seems suicidal for such a small book, the contents can be identified as having potential value for many helping professionals. The proceedings of a conference in December 1969 at Teachers College, Columbia University, and the 11 chapters by interdisciplinary experts are rounded out by appendix material and editors' introductions and summarizations. Social, family, and personal factors affecting suicide are cited, as well as variables involved in special groups, such as college students, blacks, and alcoholics. The offerings are substantive, succinct, and successful in adding to the reader's understanding of suicide. Interestingly presented, they include at least one catchy title: "For Whom the Id Tolls."

Book Reviews

Guidance Monograph Series. Series VI: Minority Groups and Guidance edited by Shelley C. Stone and Bruce Shertzer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1971. Paperback. Complete set $13.80.

Many professionals who have had only limited experiences with ethnic groups are today being asked to provide services in a number of minority group situations. Needless to say, most counselor training programs fail to equip their trainees with anything but the most superficial awareness of minorities. The current series *Minority Groups and Guidance* is designed to provide information that will enable counselors to function more effectively with minority groups. The editors, somewhat ambitiously, claim that the series is designed for the experienced practitioner as well as the beginning student. While a number of the monographs are adequate for beginning counselors or counselors who have limited experience with certain minorities, the indepth treatment that experienced counselors require is not present in this series.

The series contains much material that is probably new to the beginning counselor trainee. The fact that the special problems of Native Americans, Appalachian students, and migrants are being discussed by counselors at all is in itself fortunate. Predictably, some professionals have complained that the series does not go far enough or does not deal with specifics. For such professionals I strongly recommend *Development of Human Resources* by Robert Carkhuff. It will take

counselors as far as most of them are ready to go in terms of working with minorities.

Culture, Society and Guidance by Herbert J. Kupferer and Thomas K. Fitzgerald. 1971. 52 pp. $1.20.

This monograph is the single most important one in the series. It builds a framework for guidance personnel by elucidating important anthropological concepts and suggesting educational principles for culturally different youth. The authors give particular attention to the process of acculturation and its possible results: assimilation, integration, or incorporation. They describe these processes with reference to the individual by presenting case histories of four "bicultural" New Zealand Maoris. This bicultural model is clearly relevant to an understanding of minority groups in America. The monograph especially encourages educators to become aware of the complexity and the uniqueness of subcultures and to regard cultural differences objectively. Most significantly, the authors stress the positive potentials of cultural diversity in complex societies, supplanting the older notion that culturally different youth should be forced to conform to the patterns of a dominant subcultural group.

Appalachian Students and Guidance by James C. Hansen and Richard R. Stevic. 1971. 76 pp. $1.35.

The bias in Hansen and Stevic's approach continually hurdles their work into a muddle of ethical and theoretical difficulties. First, the authors describe Appalachia solely in terms of the values and standards of middle class American culture. Consequently, Appalachian life styles are depicted as deficient and inadequate. Second, with this shortsighted perspective, the authors fail to come to terms with the ethical implications of their assistance scheme for the area. They maintain not only that Appalachian culture is defective but also that it must be changed. If, for example, Appalachians value family relationships more than economic progress, we must help them reverse their values. In short, helping the Appalachians means helping them destroy their culture, helping them

—on our terms—to become more like us. Finally, although Hansen and Stevic emphasize that "the needs of the Appalachian youth are similar to the needs of the majority of culturally different youth," most of their assistance proposals are so general that they bear little relation to the earlier specific discussion of Appalachian culture. Similarly, many of their proposals are simply too obvious to be useful.

Urban Poor Students and Guidance by Julius Menacker. 1971. 84 pp. $1.35.

Menacker's monograph criticizes traditional approaches to counseling children of the urban poor and offers a reasonable alternative method of guidance for these students. The author feels that a counselor must, rather than merely counsel individuals in an office, search the whole school environment for cues to the adjustment problems of urban poor youth. Accordingly, and as a central feature of his alternative counseling method, Menacker encourages a far more activist role for counselors, one that will lead them even to activities and resources outside the school proper. He recommends a team of specialists who will build solid relationships with the extraschool community and operate as advocates for students in all matters affecting their education.

The most valuable aspects of Menacker's work are his discussion of the need for a guidance specialist for the urban poor and his many practical suggestions for the guidance specialist role.

Indian Students and Guidance by John Bryde. 1971. 60 pp. $1.20.

Bryde has written a valuable descriptive summary of traditional American Indian culture. He clearly indicates that counselors have historically—and ineffectively—dealt with their Indian clients through a culturally biased perspective. However, he does not go far enough in describing the kinds of activities that are specific to the guidance needs of Indian youth. His concluding remark that the ideal counselor should be "a real friend, always there, open-minded, a listener, familiar with them and their culture," while well meaning, provides little of the functional

direction that counselors other than beginning trainees desperately need.

It is indeed good to see a guidance publication devoted to what is perhaps the most neglected minority in the United States. Persons reading this monograph may then be ready for the work of Vine Deloria.

Spanish-Speaking Students and Guidance by Erwin Pollack and Julius Menacker. 1971. 86 pp. $1.35.

In describing the dimensions of the sociocultural context of Spanish-speaking students in America, Pollack and Menacker hold that these peoples' non-European origin, and especially their language, has prevented their assimilation into the mainstream of America. The authors urge an increased number of bilingual educational programs, but I question their conclusion that bilinguality is the most important cultural characteristic of the Spanish-speaking. Further, I find drastically incomplete their list of the positive cultural traits that have been lost to the Spanish-speaking through acculturation. But most seriously, after mentioning the dangers of stereotypes and generalizations, the authors come perilously close to perpetuating this very tendency in their discussions of family expectations in Mexican and Puerto Rican society. Perhaps such generalizations are unavoidable in a monograph designed for the general population of educators and counselors, but statements like "The average Chicano child in the Southwest has only a seventh-grade education" do little but confuse the reader.

Guidance and the Migrant Child by Emma M. Cappelluzzo. 1971. 58 pp. $1.20.

This monograph presents an excellent discussion of the specifics of guidance and counseling among migrant children in terms of the particular configurations of migrant culture. Cappelluzzo stresses the importance of the recognition that not all migrant culture is negative or deficient. Accordingly, she proposes education that "places high value on cultural diversity" as an alternative to the "social pathology model" traditionally applied to disadvantaged groups. The highlight of the monograph is the author's analysis of

the history of migrants' neglected needs and their recent movement into a political struggle for their rights. It is within this new context that Cappelluzzo's perspective holds great potential. Guidance personnel, she holds, can play a vital role as agents of social change on behalf of migrants; they can do more than merely help migrant children adapt to static social, political, and economic conditions.

Rural Poor Students and Guidance by Thomas J. Sweeney. 1971. 72 pp. $1.20.

Sweeney satisfactorily introduces the reader to the needs of rural poor students. When so much energy (or at least so much of the printed page) is being devoted to the problems of the urban milieu, it is important that the guidance profession not continue to forget and thus abuse rural Americans.

Sweeney presents some of the major conditions that limit the educational, vocational, and personal development of rural poor youth; this section of his work is particularly beneficial to guidance personnel new to the rural area. The chapter "Educational and Vocational Planning" offers what I feel is the most helpful portion of the book. The need of rural poor youth for information on educational and occupational opportunities is acute. The author not only suggests information giving but also gives examples of informational activities (e.g., work-study programs and field trips) that are likely to result in more active learning.

Counseling Negroes by Clemmont E. Vontress. 1970. 70 pp. $1.20.

The author of this monograph moves from a discussion of certain dynamics of black-white interaction to a number of specific counseling concerns of black people (or Negroes, as Vontress prefers to call the group). The chapter "Counseling Negro Students for College" is a particularly useful presentation of general and specific problems encountered by black students. Fairly sound guidelines for counselors concerning the use of tests with blacks are proposed. Vontress' advice applies in most instances to other economically disadvantaged minorities as well. The author is at his best in describing the

structural barriers to mobility and achievement among American minorities. When he moves into the area of personality characteristics and the actual counseling process, his conclusions are less well founded. Admittedly, the characterization of the "Negro personality" as pathological is dominant in the literature; however, the findings of empirical research and the belated questioning of certain cultural assumptions is resulting in a rejection of the "deficiency model" in an attempt to understand black behavior.—*William M. Banks, University of California, Berkeley.*

Children with Learning Disabilities: A Five-Year Follow-Up Study by Elizabeth Munsterberg Koppitz. New York: Grune & Stratton, Inc., 1971. 218 pp. $9.75.

This long-term record of children with learning disabilities is worthwhile reading for all elementary school counselors and other personnel specialists whose responsibilities require some knowledge of learning disability (LD) programs. The characteristics of 177 children enrolled in a special education program that served 13 public school districts in an unidentified northeastern state provide the focus for this book. The children, ages 6 to 12, were studied for eight years by the author, who illustrates and discusses their performance in a school LD program that is "at least equal to, if not better than, many other special classes programs in public schools throughout the country."

Generous use of examples from childrens' drawings, Bender Gestalt Test records, intelligence and achievement test scores, developmental and medical records, and social background information aid the reader in understanding both the children and the LD program.

Some of the suggestions by Koppitz for improving LD programs have a familiar ring for counselors, e.g., "Public schools should make more *allowances for individual differences* between pupils [italics author's] . . ." and "The emphasis in special education should be shifted from rehabilitation and the correction of learning and emotional disorders to the *prevention* of such problems [italics author's] . . ."

The unencapsulated counselor will find this book useful in broadening his base of knowledge for teamwork with the school

psychologist, the special education teacher, and others who have a direct responsibility for identifying and educating LD children. —*Randolph J. Nelson, University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut.*

Student Development Programs in the Community Junior College edited by Terry O'Banion and Alice Thurston. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972. 235 pp. $7.95.

This book is not really about student development programs; it is about community college students, student personnel services, and the colleges and communities in which these services are performed. Only 2 of the 19 chapters deal with this new model for student personnel services, i.e., student develop ment programs. I do not mean this as a criticism of the book but rather as a caution to the reader who may be expecting to get information about such models. The 21 knowledgeable authors have contributed 19 brief chapters on topics ranging from articulation to values. Some chapters are based on research, others on experience, and still others on ideas about what ought to be.

Some of the best material is to be found in Medsker's opening chapter on the role of student personnel services, in which he poses 25 hard questions reflecting crucial issues to be faced by student personnel workers in the next decade; Collins' chapter on student characteristics and their implications; Richardson's treatise on the student's role in the affairs of the college, including his rights and responsibilities; Robbins' section on the internal factors influencing student personnel work; Wattenbarger's material on articulation; Matson's assessment of the impact of the Carnegie study of the appraisal and development of student personnel programs; and the chapters by Grant and by O'Banion, Thurston, and Gulden on student development programs for the future.

A weakness in the book is its rather sparse attention to racial-ethnic minority students and others who are disadvantaged by virtue of their socioeconomic status and/or prior educational experiences. Little mention is made of their special needs or of the special programs and services being developed to meet those needs. Almost no mention is made of student financial aid programs or remediation services for the variously disadvantaged students. Another problem of the book, not the fault of the authors, is the rapidity with which this type of material becomes dated.

Still, the book is useful in providing an excellent overview of the present-day community college from a student personnel point of view. Student personnel workers in the community colleges will enjoy it. Those readers who will benefit most, however, are graduate students preparing to work in student personnel programs in all types of institutions and new staff of all kinds who are working for the first time in a community college. One hopes that the editors will write their book on student development programs sometime soon.—*Dorothy M. Knoell, California Community Colleges, Sacramento.*

Changing Your Job After 35 by Godfrey Golzen and Philip Plumbley. London, England: Kogan Page, 1971. 150 pp. £1.50.

There is increasing interest on both sides of the Atlantic nowadays in both the problem of enforced redundancy and the possibility of the chance to train for new careers in middle life. There is now beginning to be a reversal of the Brain Drain that was the migration of British doctors, scientists, and other qualified people to the United States; there is, in fact, official activity to encourage some of them to return to the United Kingdom. At the same time, the British economy is showing some of the features of the American economy in the redundancy of executives as a result of technological change and company mergers, in the development of recruitment consultancy agencies of various kinds, and in the mass of advertising in prestige journals and newspapers by which organisations hope to recruit experienced managers and executives.

It is hard for people to get a realistic picture of the possibility of starting a new career in middle life, so there will be general welcome for this book. It is essentially practical, clearly and readably written, and full of sensible and realistic advice and encouragement tempered with suitable warnings against false optimism. It would be particularly useful for any employee of an American firm

hoping to relocate to the United Kingdom or for a personnel consultant or counsellor faced with questions from people who are uncertain of the mechanics of starting again in a new career. The book's cover, with its simple questions and phrases, illustrates the tone of the book itself: "Redundancy payments" "Golden hand-shakes" "What use are consultants?" "Should I advertise?" "Negotiating a salary" "Will I pay tax?" "Changing your career" "Can I afford to wait?" "Interview do's and dont's" "Will my face fit?"

This book certainly fits many executives' and counsellors' situations.—*Catherine Avent, Inner London Education Authority, England.*

Careers Guidance: The Role of the School in Vocational Development by J. Hayes and B. Hopson. Leeds, England: Heinemann Educational Books, Ltd., 1971. 260 pp. £3.00.

This book is intended for those involved in careers education in British secondary schools; it is directed particularly at that segment of school personnel known until recently in Britain as "careers masters" but nowadays more accurately and more wisely called "careers teachers." American readers of this book will meet and no doubt cope with unfamiliar and perhaps intriguing terms and references such as G.C.E., Newsom Report, etc. To put the book in perspective, however, one must distinguish between careers teacher and careers officer. The former refers to a member of the teaching staff of a secondary school to whom, in addition to his or her teaching duties, responsibility for careers work has been allocated by the head teacher. The latter is, in most cases, employed by the local education authority but is based outside the school and has a different training background from that of the teacher. The position adopted in this book coincides with the view that the bulk of the careers guidance should be done by careers teachers, while the careers officer should act mainly as a consultant to the schools and concentrate on such activities as after-care and advisory work with employees.

The authors set out "to present a general framework of ideas and techniques which may be adapted to suit a careers teacher's particular needs." In presenting their theoretical framework they rely heavily on Donald Super's theory of vocational development,

stress the importance of self-understanding and the development of the self-concept, and relate these to the use of occupational information in careers guidance in a school setting. They are reasonably successful in this part and in the later parts of the book where they bring together a great variety of prescriptions and suggestions for dealing with careers education both inside and outside the classroom.

I am left with feelings of doubt, however, in relation to both the role prescribed for the careers teacher and the term *careers teaching*. My misgivings were reinforced with considerable frequency by the sketchy and potentially misleading way in which suggestions for practice in a wide range of guidance activities were sometimes introduced. Readers of the book should know that there is at present very little training available for careers teachers in Britain and that the time allocation for a careers teacher often amounts to no more than four or five periods per week; yet virtually every major issue on guidance is touched on in the book. It is scarcely surprising that the words *counsellor* and *counselling* increasingly insinuate themselves in the latter part of the book particularly. I was left somewhat confused by these unrecognised and unresolved ambiguities.

Though the book is of greater interest to British than American guidance workers, it should be of interest from a comparative point of view to counsellors in American high schools.—*Patrick M. Hughes, University of Reading, Reading, England.*

The Mental Health Team in the Schools by Margaret M. Lawrence. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1971. 169 pp. $6.95.

This book describes a mental health consultancy project conducted in Rockland County, New York, from 1957 to 1963. Funded by the county mental health board, a team composed of a psychiatrist, a clinical psychologist, and a psychiatric social worker established consultative relationships with professional staffs of eight area school districts enrolling a total of 20,000 pupils.

The author spells out the elaborate consultation philosophy of the project, centering on assistance being rendered to classroom teachers. She sees its major goal as being an increase in teacher sensitivity and self-understanding, thus enhancing pupil creativity and mutual consultant-teacher understanding. She sets forth a procedure for case conferences and uses case studies of three referred clients to illustrate practical applications of the consultative rationale.

The book centers around working with two important school staff members: classroom teachers and district psychologists. Much less is said of working with administrators and guidance counselors. While school principals, for example, attended the cited case conferences, the inputs they contributed and the benefits they received are not discussed. Although it is mentioned that the consultancy team met periodically with area counselors, the author says little about evolving benefits of these meetings. In fact, the old counselor stereotype appears in print once again, as we read that counselors have "preoccupations . . . with group testing and college visitations." The author does, however, encourage counselors "to be the pupil's best representative" (in dealing with the mental health team), indicating that she correctly perceives the counselor role as being primarily concerned with students. She proposes some positive suggestions, including reducing counselor case loads and improving the image of the so-called vocational subjects.

A worthy proposal the author suggests is the holding of a conference on educational services for emotionally disturbed children (the mental health team in Rockland County organized such a conference in 1959), and she gives a practical outline and philosophic rationale for sponsoring such a gathering. Perhaps school counselors and mental health professionals elsewhere might consider staging a similar activity.

All in all, this is a worthwhile book for school oriented members of helping professions. Its frame of reference and pragmatic suggestions are worthy of dissemination and consideration. It does not, however, say anything special to school counselors that has not been said in greater detail elsewhere.—*Glenn Dahlem, Regis College, Denver, Colorado.*
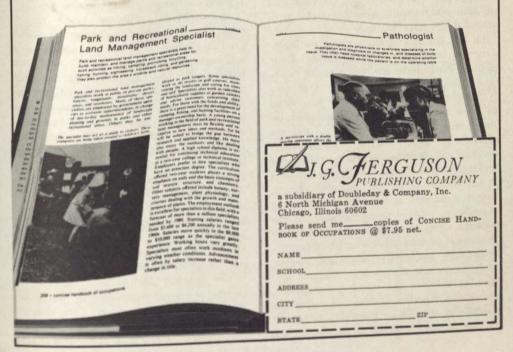
Microcounseling: Innovations in Interviewing Training by Allen E. Ivey. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1972. 135 pp. $9.75.

Ivey in this brief book makes a strong case for microcounseling as an appropriate and

needed strategy for counselor education. He accurately points to the pedagogical weaknesses of so many counselor education approaches, saying that open-ended, ambiguous, and even contradictory counseling supervision sessions may do little more than leave the neophyte confused or, worse yet, feeling vaguely guilty that he is somehow missing the point of it all. Further, as Ivey notes, these sessions rarely produce requisite skills.

To replace them Ivey outlines his system of careful, systematic, stepwise training in the elements of counseling—one piece at a time—hence the term *microcounseling*. Essentially the Ivey system presents a series of curriculum packages, each labeled a component of counseling, for example: (a) attendance, i.e., learning to maintain eye contact, etc.; (b) open invitations to talk; (c) minimal encouragement to talk; (d) selective listening; (e) reflection of feeling; (f) paraphrasing; (g) summarization of feelings; (h) summarization of content. Each instructional unit also includes an outline of teaching methods for each component.

The most valuable part of the book, however, is not the descriptions of the techniques; it is rather Ivey's careful scholarship and collection of research studies, as well as his development of a rationale for the technique itself. His writing here is at its best. The bibliography is extensive, and the discussion on most points results from his careful analysis of the research findings.

On the minus side, there are a few inconsistencies in the work that flaw some of the points. Particularly noticeable is the extensive claim that microcounseling as training is not prescriptive; the difficulty here seems to be a confusion between a pedagogy for supervision, which *is* prescriptive, and the author's desire to claim a value neutrality for his skill training system. In fact, the major theoretical lacuna of the piece appears in the author's claim that microcounseling is simply a training technology. As such, the training is value free or neutral, in the author's view, and can be attached to any theoretical or even atheoretical framework.

However, spontaneity, openness, honesty, and genuineness *are* values. Effective skill training broadens the learner's perceptions, changes his experience table, and teaches him literally to set part of himself aside so that he can see and respond to another person from that person's point of view. In other words, learning microcounseling skills will change the learner. This means that we as educators cannot avoid the value issues inherent in such intervention. We cannot keep microcounseling as just an operational, open system—"utility man" to be plugged into any system. The procedures will require a linkage to theory—sooner or later!—*Norman A. Sprinthall, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

Counseling: Group Theory and System by Daniel W. Fullmer. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1971. 299 pp. $8.00.

Counseling: Group Theory and System is primarily a collection of ideas about theories, practice, and research on group counseling. The author's primary recommendation is that school counselors begin to work with a total family unit and/or "significant other" peer groups when attempting to help a troubled student.

After conceptualizing the counseling group as the best simulation of a counselee's community through which most social, cultural, and interpersonal learning takes place, Fullmer develops his own theory of group counseling, based on his experiences with and research on family group consultation.

Philosophically, Fullmer aligns himself with Mowrer's integrity therapy, in which "radical honesty" in a group setting is an important prerequisite for therapeutic change. He combines this with the techniques used by Moreno in psychodrama and by Frankl in logotherapy as ways of stimulating, or "cueing," different—and more constructive—behavior in the group. Behavioral counseling techniques such as selective reinforcement by the group leader and other group members toward the new behaviors account for the reconditioning of the client's maladaptive behavior. If the group is made up of significant others (family, peers, work associates), the likelihood of the new and more constructive behaviors continuing outside the group is increased.

The chapters dealing with the author's interpretation of these group counseling theories are sensitively done. These chapters also demonstrate (model) how an experienced practitioner can evolve a meaningful eclectic

theory, combining his own experiences with the views of other theorists.

My major criticism of the book is that Fullmer writes in a style that I find very difficult to comprehend. I felt much frustration as I read the first eight chapters, having trouble discerning what the main points were and figuring out where the author was taking me. The organization of the chapters confused me; the subheadings within chapters were frequently misleading regarding the content. Ill-defined jargon and undocumented statements abound throughout many of the early chapters. And Fullmer has a tendency to insert ideas or thoughts that seem irrelevant or out of context and are left undeveloped.

I would not have finished the book had I not made the commitment to write this review. That would have been unfortunate, because I learned much from the latter half of the book, where Fullmer covered the various group counseling theories and gave his own extrapolations from these theories and his ideas about family group consultation.— *Tony Roffers, University of California, Berkeley.*

Foundations of Counseling Strategies by James R. Barclay. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1971. 427 pp. $11.25.

This is a highly theoretical work designed to provide graduate students with a frame of reference for understanding the cultural and philosophical foundations that underlie counseling theory and practice.

Barclay contends that (a) the goals, methods, and assessment of counseling rest on metaphysical, epistemological, and axiological postulates; (b) counselor education involves inquiry into ultimate questions about human existence and not just the learning of technical competencies; (c) counseling personnel have an inadequate knowledge of the cultural and philosophical bases of their efforts; and (d) it is hyprocrisy for a counselor to advocate commitment to a process of self-knowledge and development in the lives of others while failing to examine the concepts and beliefs on which his own life and labors rest.

Barclay posits a bipolar continuum of counseling approaches ranging from the humanistic, subject oriented, cognitive view to the environmentalist, object oriented, behav-

ioral approach. The body of the book is devoted to a tracing of the main cultural (religious, medical, educational, psychological) and philosophical antecedents of these opposing positions.

Admirable though his intentions are, it is questionable whether Barclay's work will fulfill its purpose. He has assayed too much in one volume. Philosophic questions are seldom simple and amenable to brief explanations without suffering some distortion and diminution of clarity. The contributions of monumental minds such as Aristotle, Aquinas, Descartes, and Kant cannot be adequately expounded in a few pages. Barclay's reliance, in some instances, on secondary instead of primary sources has not added to the clarity and precision of his expositions. Couple these difficulties with the limited philosophical background of counseling personnel, and the probability decreases that the material presented will have much significance for them. The principal value of this work lies in its potential for encouraging the reader to engage in an indepth investigation of the theories presented.

The limitations mentioned above, how-

ever, do not obscure the fact that this book represents a milestone in counseling literature. A prominent counselor educator has given long overdue recognition to the great debt that modern counseling owes to the intellectual giants of the past, particularly to Thomas Aquinas, the Schoolmen of the Middle Ages, and Franz Brentano, for their sophisticated insights regarding intentional cognition. If counseling can be parted from the simplistic, Lockean, and associationist epistemology on which it was reared, there is justifiable hope for the future.—*Edward V. Daubner, Longwood College, Farmville, Virginia.*

The Great School Legend: A Revisionist Interpretation of American Public Education by Colin Greer. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1972. 206 pp. $6.95.

To the arbiters of the educational establishment, the claim of Colin Greer's audacious title, *The Great School Legend,* will seem unnerving. In a tightly reasoned argument, Greer challenges the long-standing faith in the American school system and debunks the myth that "the public schools did great and marvelous things for poor people in the past." For those who continue to believe this myth—even without any radical innovations or change—the schools will continue to work democratic miracles for those children who still have not "made it."

But educational myths die long before they are dead. Rather than blaming the lack of success for participation in the major culture on the schools themselves, Greer holds the black urban poor responsible for not making the same good use of the schools as their predecessors allegedly did. But the poor have always failed in school, and those immigrants who "made it" did so by falling back on their native customs and skills, making their way in spite of, not because of, public schooling.

His position is sound and tough. If schools, he reasons, did in fact take the backward poor—the ragged and ill-prepared immigrants—and educated and Americanized them into a homogeneous and productive middle class, two very prevalent conditions would be evident in today's America: First, Puerto Ricans and blacks, the new "immigrants," would be moving into the suburbs; and second, "There would be the school itself—the place where we should all be able to find our future at work in microcosm, the place where there should be no doubts about what the norms of society are." The fact that neither of these two conditions prevails should raise doubts for counselors about their role in perpetuating what the school does. As critic Alfred Kazin observed, "It is still easy to play 'pathetic minority'—but culturally the ethnic groups are now the richest and most interesting."

For counselors, the important question remains: Does their role make the school myth die either by changing the lives of their students or even exploding the fiction? And the answer is no—no more than the inscrutable implications of vocational research of the '40's and '50's helped counselors apprehend what the effects of the myth might be for career choice and adjustment for the '60's and '70's. And until guidance workers seriously give heed to Greer's intelligence, their energies and efforts will remain fallow, surrounded by pious hopes but never caught—and never implemented.—*Eugene L. Gaier, State University of New York at Buffalo.*

Guidelines for Authors

When submitting an article for publication in the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an original and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space all material.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.* The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

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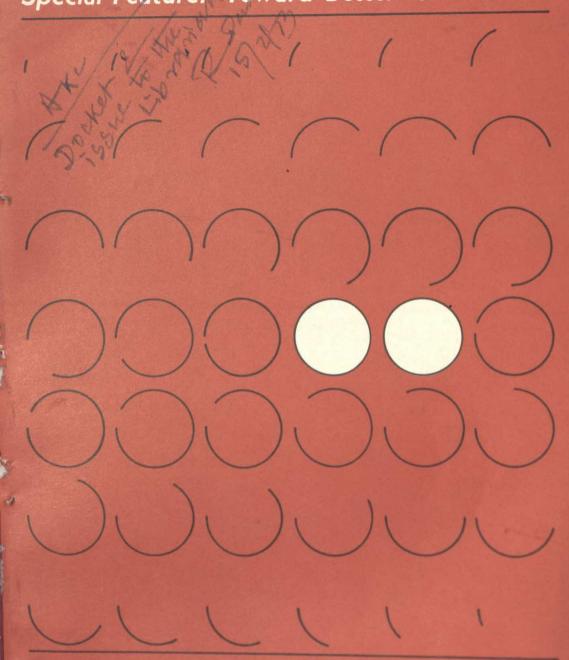
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ARTICLES

SPECIAL FEATURE: TOWARD BETTER CONVENTIONS

IN THE FIELD

POEMS

Feedback

Is P&G for Readers or Writers?

As an avid reader of the P&G JOURNAL and a fellow journal editor [Ed.—*The School Counselor*], I am a bit perplexed by the "press" for more research you have received from those out in the field (September 1972 editorial). There are those who say you have "gone too far . . . it's time to restore the balance." Perhaps we need some research on who those voices are. The P&G JOURNAL has never been better. Although I cannot speak with statistical accuracy for the silent majority, I would suspect that it is they who devour each issue but don't let you or your board know how relevant the JOURNAL is to them. After all, who is a journal for—the writer or the reader? Might it be that the APGA convention represents the writer and that the pressures that board members feel are also from writers?

MARGUERITE R. CARROLL
Fairfield University
Fairfield, Connecticut

A New Look from the Old Guard

As a graduate student who just recently prepared for a comprehensive exam, I had occasion to read several of the Special Issues of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL. Of particular interest was the one dealing with social revolution (May 1971). Reading through the various articles, I was struck by what appeared to be some common logical fallacies:

1. Several writers seem to be advocating that only blacks can counsel blacks, only Indians can truly build a relationship with Indians, and only Puerto Ricans can understand Puerto Ricans. What seems to be missing here is the recognition of the universality of the human situation. To be lonely, to lack a sense of identity, or to feel worthless is the same no matter what your skin color or national origin.

2. If we look further at this proposal that only "likes" can develop a constructive counseling relationship, another consideration soon presents itself. Is it not possible that being different can be of even greater value than having many shared characteristics? Does not the occasion arise when a client needs a new perspective, new input or data to process, or a different frame of reference? The counselor who does not share an identical life situation with his client may well be the only one who is able to bring this objectivity to his client.

3. Some writers apparently felt that in order to close the gap of "understanding" between counselor and client (in those cases where similarity was not perfect) it was advisable to live with those persons being counseled. However, no matter how far an individual goes in his attempts to be like another person, the fact remains that he can never be truly the same. One's whole life experience cannot be wiped out by a few weeks' or a few months' experiment in living.

4. If we reduce our logic to the absurd, wouldn't we then have to conclude that any counselor who attempts this experiment in order to be more like his counselees and therefore more understanding of them would then be truly qualified to counsel only other persons who, like himself, entered such an experiment? If only likes may counsel likes successfully, then we should at least be consistent about our definition of *like*. How much *alike* must two persons be?

Perhaps in the future the issue of social revolution can be explored again; but it would be interesting to have not only the views of the "new regime" but also those of the "old guard"—those professionals in our field who not only have training and competence but also have infinitely more experience. The contrast could be fascinating.

ELAINE C. DIEPENBROCK
Rockville, Maryland

Editorial

SOMETHING NEW: THE SPECIAL FEATURE

In this issue we publish our first Special Feature—a small cluster of articles, most of them invited, on a single topic. In February we are planning to have the second P&G Special Feature, on counseling Asian-Americans.

You may be interested in our rationale for using the Special Feature approach rather than an entire Special Issue. Reader reaction indicates that the Special Issues have been effective vehicles for giving attention to major topics in our field, especially topics about which few articles were being received through the usual channel of unsolicited submission. Such were the Special Issues on Technology in Guidance, Groups in Guidance, Ethical Practices, and the 50th Anniversary Issue, with its emphasis on our association and our field as a whole.

Other Special Issues have presented essentially one point of view, usually a new or even radical one. Such were the Special Issues on What Guidance for Blacks? Counseling and the Social Revolution, Culture as a Reason for Being, Mutuality, and Women and Counselors. Some people have objected to the lack of balance in these issues, but, on the whole, readers seem to have welcomed the opportunity to examine one point of view in depth.

Finally, the Special Issues have brought new voices to the pages of P&G. The guest editors and invited authors tend to be relatively young people in the field and others whose ideas and experiences were not seen in the regular issues.

But the Special Issues interrupt the continuity of the regular P&G departments: Feedback, Etcetera, and Book Reviews. And every Special Issue leaves some readers cold. So the Editorial Board decided to reduce the number of Special Issues to one or two in each volume year. Most of the time we will suggest to guest editors that they plan the Special Feature type of presentation. Those readers who don't particularly dig that topic will still find several regular articles and all the monthly departments in Special Feature issues.

We hope that both the Special Features and Special Issues will serve a seeding purpose, that they will stimulate readers to prepare articles or at least letters to the editor on the topic. As always, we welcome reader reactions and suggestions for other special topics so that we can zero in on the important needs of practitioners in our field. I can assure you that every letter receives my personal attention and will, when appropriate, be published or shared with the Editorial Board. ■ LG

College counseling: between the rock and the hard place

CHARLES F. WARNATH

Professional counseling in institutions of higher education is facing a serious crisis. The crisis is not due simply to the fact that institutional administrators are asking their professional counselors to account for their activities, nor is it due simply to the fact that professional counselors have lost touch with an increasing proportion of students who are turning to self-initiated counseling arrangements for their most immediate needs.
The crisis of counselor survival arises mainly from the fact that those services that administrators expect professional counselors to perform as part of their organizational role are actually counterproductive to the establishment of trusting and meaningful relationships between counselors and students.

As long as colleges remained stable and affluent and student bodies relatively homogeneous, the contributions of professional counselors to their institutions did not become an open issue. Their potential for assisting students was taken for granted by institutional administrators. However, the sharp increase in the size and heterogeneity of student bodies, followed by a leveling off or reduction of funds available to colleges, has forced an evaluation of many programs in higher education in terms of the effectiveness with which they fulfill institutional expectations of their functions.

Student services are particularly vulnerable to demands that they be justified on the basis of their contributions to the institution. Those student personnel areas traditionally oriented toward central administration have engaged in general reorganizations and reassignments in an attempt to adapt to changing conditions within the college environment. Professional counselors have also felt increased pressure to respond to new demands within the college setting. Consistent with their basic service orientation, their response has been to develop so-called outreach activities in order to meet the needs of a more complex student constituency. The response has been a logical extension of the skills of these professionals; it has not, however, adequately taken into consideration institutional expectations—expectations that assume the priority of accountability as defined in terms of institutional needs and restrictions.

THE POLITICAL REALITY OF COUNSELING

Halleck (1971) argued that society or the institution in which the therapist (or counselor) works defines the limits of his practice and uses him as a tool to accomplish specific social (or institutional) goals. Counselors have been naïve about the sociological and political factors impinging on the performance of their professional activities. Trained within the context of the private practitioner model, the college counselor has ordi-

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narily been little concerned about questions related to the operation of the bureaucratic structure within which he works—or his role in that structure as perceived by others (Warnath 1956, 1969).

The counselor's role is what it is because institutional forces permit or determine that role using criteria consistent with the goals, purposes, and image of the institution. As I have noted elsewhere (Warnath 1971), extended psychotherapy has been afforded legitimacy at liberal arts colleges and universities where self-exploration and personal freedoms are emphasized and where administrators and parents are familiar with clinical-psychiatric services, while short-term academic-vocational counseling has been the predominant activity of the counseling centers at those schools oriented toward preparing students primarily for occupational roles in society. Through preselection of staff members, friction between counselor activities and institutional expectations has been minimal. What counselors have been doing has been perceived by institutional management as fitting the needs of the institution; counselors were defusing or reducing the types of problems the institution considered potentially annoying or disruptive.

Radically altered conditions in higher education have fractured many of the old relationships and assumptions. As counselors have expanded their services and altered their styles in response to their professional judgments about changing student needs, a growing number of them are discovering that their freedom to decide which student needs should receive highest priority attention and which manner of offering services is most appropriate is circumscribed by institutional considerations. In other words, college counselors are finding that their feeling of independence was an illusion resulting from the fact that their previous professional activities did

contribute to institutional goals of student regulation and control and therefore did not result in challenge by the administration. However, now that the needs being expressed by a significant part of the college population are more openly in conflict with the institutional bureaucracy, counselors who are responding to those student needs find themselves confronting that bureaucracy. *The college counselor is finding that when individual needs conflict with those of the institution, he is expected to resolve the conflict in favor of the institution.*

Secondary school guidance has experienced this situation since its inception and, as Stubbins (1970a, 1970b) indicated, the bureaucratic structure of educational institutions has a controlling impact on the careers of counselors and a limiting effect on the client-counselor interactions themselves. But as Arbuckle (1969) noted, open conflict with administrators over professional practice has been kept to a minimum by the fact that counselors are already predisposed toward conserving the values of society. Much the same point could be made about professional counselors at the college level; however, their illusion of freedom for determining the content and style of their practice is encouraging them to modify their activities—and this is leading to their discovery of the limitations on their degree of freedom imposed by their institutions. Self-initiated modifications of counselors' roles can be successful only insofar as the changes are perceived by institutional managers as producing more efficient or effective ways of fulfilling their expectations of the counseling staff.

ACCOUNTABILITY: TO WHOM? FOR WHAT?

The issue of accountability is critical to the future of professional counselors in institutional settings, for unless the profession can clarify the focus of responsibility of its practitioners in operational

terms, any modification of counselor activities such as outreach programs will be of limited value—and short-lived. As soon as administrators perceive new activities as having the potential for disturbing the system or as taking time away from activities they feel are necessary for meeting institutional needs, those activities will be curtailed— through staff reductions, staff reassignments, or the simple expedient of informing counselors that they are no longer meeting expected standards.

Patterson (1969) attributed the search for new models for the professional counselor to the flight of the fainthearted from a demanding role and to their distaste for becoming intimately involved with other individuals. Traditionalists among counseling center directors have pointed out that there already appears to be a relationship between the amount of involvement in outreach activities and the difficulties some college centers experience with their administrations, implying that counselors should maintain their traditional roles in order to protect their jobs. Neither Patterson, who questions the motives of those professional counselors who are seeking another model for practitioners, nor other traditionalists who argue that counselors will be safer if they stay with the classic model, nor, for that matter, those who have become disenchanted with the status quo and are searching for a new model have addressed themselves to the central issue raised by Halleck (1971) and Stubbins (1970a, 1970b): *Counseling and therapy are integral parts of the political forces within an institutional setting.* As such, the criteria for the content and quality of the counselor's work will be determined by the institutional managers. As long as the counselor seems to be helping the misfits, the confused, or the rebellious find their way back into productive roles in the mainstream of the institution, he may be a useful tool for the institution.

But when he begins calling attention to facets of the institution that may be contributing to the disruption of human lives or the alienation of people from the system, he becomes an annoyance. When he moves to effect changes in the system, he becomes a clear and present danger.

PROFESSIONAL COUNSELING VERSUS THE CLIENTS

The dilemma in which counselors find themselves is only secondarily related to value conflicts between adult counselors and their youthful clients (Wrenn 1970). Attempts to analyze in psychological terms counselors' concerns about their effectiveness will not lead to any fundamental solutions to the underlying problems confronting them. For solutions, counselors must examine their functions within their institutional settings.

For a more comprehensive evaluation of the role of the professional counselor in the institutional bureaucracy, the leadership of the profession should invite organizational and institutional analysts familiar with the settings in which professional counselors work to critique the role of the counselor, much as the sociologist Bisno (1960) did when he compared the professional development of clinical (counseling) psychology to that of other professional groups. One of Bisno's conclusions was that the practitioner, in his efforts to gain professional respectability, engaged in status seeking activities that were counterproductive to the welfare of the people he claimed to be helping. At that time counselors ignored Bisno's indictment that inconsistencies and contradictions existed between their stated professional goals and the delivery of services to clients. The proposition that the profession was created to do something nice for people has become self-justifying and has protected the profession from genuine self-analysis. An individual practitioner encountering conflicts in one work setting could easily find half a dozen other counseling cen-

ters seeking additional staff—and always at more money. Or he could turn academic and teach others how to perform in their cubicles. But those days are past; job openings now are few. Counselors are being forced to remain where they are, under conditions in which their activities are being more explicitly defined and evaluated by institutional managers.

While college counselors were discussing with each other their unconditional positive regard for individual clients and explaining to others that they did not play God with the lives of their clients, administrators and faculty were making decisions that did affect the lives of numerous students, causing confusions that some students brought to counselors. Counselors, however, did not question the propriety of the factors that brought the students in for counseling. Counselors have typically kept their heads down and remained in their cubicles while campus life raged outside. They have not only refrained from becoming actively involved; they have also understood remarkably little about the sources of power affecting students and even less about how those political forces affected themselves. They are now faced by the fact that those who do manipulate the system view them as contributing to the stability of the system. Very simply, institutional managers assume any current system as the given and questions about the operations of the system as attacks on the system; problems are those of the questioners, not the system. Counseling has been one device employed by institutional managers to reduce frictions between students and the system by translating any difficulties into student problems.

STUDENTS' FLIGHT
FROM THE COUNSELING CENTER

The professional counselor's dilemma is not only his intellectual confrontation with the reality of his accountability to his institution. For while the counseling staff is being pressured to present evidence that it is doing something significant for the institution, various categories of the counseling center's potential clientele are rejecting its traditional services. Coping with the situation is complicated by the fact that, while administrators are requiring evidence that students are being more effectively guided into proper paths toward traditional middle class goals, a decreasing proportion of students see these goals as meaningful. In light of the accelerating changes occurring around them, changes so well documented by Toffler (1970), a significant number of students view the selection of a specific goal to work toward achieving 10 or even 5 years in the future as a bit of adult madness. They see their problems as more immediate, and for these problems they are creating their own helping relationships.

Most commonly found in minority programs, legal services, drug crash pads, abortion referral services, and sensitivity group arrangements, helpers are generally students, ministers, and lay people with little, if any, formal counselor training. Individual members of the institution's counseling center may be invited to participate as consultants, but the fact remains that the professional counselors serve at the pleasure of students.

The professional counselor's role as the principal source of counseling services on campus is being subtly challenged, not simply because students are turning to nonprofessional sources of assistance but, more importantly, because the spontaneous emergence of these specialized services, independent of the institution's formal counseling services, highlights the discrepancy between the way professionals view their competencies and the way students view them. One manifestation of this discrepancy is the rejection of formal counseling services by ethnic minority students, who

quite appropriately say that the typical middle class counselor does not have the background or style to do more than assist them with factual information.

Counselors may attempt to rationalize away the charges of ethnic minority students as simply part of the rhetoric in which these students engage to enhance their self-image, but much the same charge is made by the young people who are on 24-hour duty at the drug crash pads located on the edges of our campuses. And the charge is echoed by young women who have had the misfortune of finding themselves with an unwanted pregnancy or who have nontraditional occupational goals. One or two counselors may have contacts with these different groups, but their relations are generally due to the counselors' unique personal characteristics or life styles rather than their formal status within the counseling center.

The research findings of Thomas and Stewart (1971) regarding the biases of counselors (male and female) against young women with traditionally masculine career goals is one piece of evidence indicating that there is considerable merit in the suspicions of students that most counselors are indeed supporters of the status quo. Counselors are eagerly accepting invitations to consult with lay people and paraprofessionals who work directly with special student problems because this enables them to fit into the emerging outreach model and gives them a feeling of being in on the new student movement. However, the metamessage carried by these invitations is not being heard—that the professionals may possess helpful techniques and procedures but lack the personal experience and sensitivity necessary to cope directly with the critical needs of young people.

Students are giving notice that formal counseling services are not geared to meet their high priority needs. And beyond that, they are indicating that they do not trust a service that is part of the organizational structure. Services initiated by students are, to a greater or lesser degree, antiestablishment or noninstitutional. Students seem to be saying, through their very selective use of professional counselors outside the physical confines of the counseling center, that they view the center as an integral part of the system, an arm or tool of the institution—exactly what the institutional managers expect it to be. Students, it would seem, are more sensitive than the counselors themselves to the contrast between the role of the professional counselor, with its emphasis on techniques, procedures, and style, and the position of the counselor within the bureaucratic structure.

NO PLACE TO HIDE

Professional counseling at all levels of the educational hierarchy is in serious difficulty. Unfortunately, some of its practitioners are still only dimly aware of the sources of its troubles. Trained to look inward for solutions, counselors have been blinded to the fact that they are being reminded in many ways that they are responsible for meeting institutional expectations that may bear little relationship to the immediate high priority needs of young people. If they allow their activities to be defined by institutional managers, they will lose contact with the great majority of youth. If they move to meet the highest priority needs of their student constituencies, as suggested by Mills (1971), Oetting (1970), and Warnath (1968; 1971) for college counselors or by Aubrey (1969), Matheny (1971), and Stewart and Warnath (1965) for secondary school guidance personnel, they run the risk of direct confrontation with administrators for abandoning their traditional role.

Professional counselors in higher education and guidance personnel in secondary education must cope with the implications this situation has for their professional integrity. They must rec-

ognize that they have a very different relationship with their clients than do private practitioners. Their position within the institutional structure determines, in more ways than they have been willing to admit, the parameters of their work activities. More importantly, their position establishes the goals they are permitted to accept as legitimate client goals.

Counseling staffs have been attempting to adjust to the changes in higher education through the development of outreach programs in order to meet more effectively those needs indicated by students to have the highest priority. Some are already discovering, however, that they are not free to define a new role for themselves—particularly if that role appears to align them with students who are attempting to cope with the system. Ironically, if they do not align themselves with the students, they will have no clientele to serve.

Some counseling centers will probably resolve their dilemma by allowing administrators to restrict them to traditional activities, such as those related to vocational guidance. Those attempting to respond directly to stated student needs may find their services cut back or absorbed into other units. The modification of professional roles is an issue for the entire profession; it is not a decision to be fought out simply on the local level. The profession need only look at secondary school guidance to see the unfortunate results that can occur when the responsibilities of professional service personnel are defined by local administrators.

The profession, through its relevant organizations, must clearly and precisely define acceptable roles for its practitioners in an institutional setting. If no agreement can be reached with the administrators of higher education on meaningful roles for professional counselors within the present structure of the colleges—without the sacrifice of integrity and professional autonomy—the profession should encourage local staffs to pursue alternatives to remaining within the traditional administrative framework. A staff might consider negotiating with the student government for its support, developing joint services with noncampus agencies, or moving off campus to offer counseling and consulting services on a fee basis to the campus and community at large.

Any attempts at redefining the counselor's role in higher education must be supported at the national level, for local staffs negotiating new arrangements with an institution must have the assurance that the administration cannot simply eliminate the negotiating staff and hire another. What is at stake here is no less than the integrity of the profession. It is no longer possible for professional counselors to hide from the fact that institutional managers do determine the limits of the counselor's professionalism through their decisions about the types of student problems that can be legitimately served and their approval or disapproval of the techniques counselors employ.

Who will determine what professional counselors on the college campus do and how they do it—that's the issue. The building pressures from institutional managers, coupled with the flight of students to other services, make it imperative that the profession move quickly and decisively to solve the dilemma, lest the students in the next college generation speak of professional counseling services in the past tense. ■

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FAITH HEALER

They come
Painful faces seeking explanation
As I perform believing acts of magical salvation.

Reputation spreads.

God, I never meant to imply other than my own humanness
Needing to be needed
A victim of my own analysis.

Belief in self gone, still pretending to care
I've become a faith healer
Prescribing cures I cannot share.

Roger L. Coleman
Director, Everyday People, Inc.
Columbia, Missouri

INTAKE, INTOOK, TAKEN IN

When I came in to see if
someone could see if
I could listen to myself, or if
I listened too loudly
already—

I was greeted by papers
and forms
and questionnaires
that probed and picked
in black and white lines
without reflecting
or supporting
or even being warm.

I talked with someone
who wanted me to tell
what I *would* tell without
all I *could* tell,
because he had to assign
me to someone else—
I can't remember his name now.

I was left
having to wait until
whoever I was assigned to
would assign himself
to me—
I resigned myself to that.

And now my crisis
has passed, and I still have to wait
for a phone call
from my assigned someone
to tell him
it's too late
to need him now . . .

David X. Swenson
Counselor
University of Missouri, Columbia

Credo of
a militant humanist

ROBERT R. CARKHUFF

Beginning with the basic assumption that the only reason to live is to grow, the author discusses the dozen propositions that guide him in his efforts at human and community resource development. These propositions revolve around the physical, emotional, and intellectual development of the individual.

My fundamental assumption in life is this: The only reason to live is to grow, and therefore growth is worth any price. It is the "growth" part that makes me a humanist. It is the "price" part that makes me a militant.

I am a humanist because I have seen growth in myself and others. I have experienced what it is to be larger and fuller each day—physically, emotionally, and intellectually. And I know that the world around me is capable of being fuller and larger each day.

For me, humanism reflects man's reaching up to new heights to actualize his resources. I distinguish this from the kind of pseudo-democratic idealism that I have come to know as humanism, in which man is leveled down in an equalizing process, never being asked to do "more" or "better" but only to do his "own thing."

I am a militant because I have ears and eyes that hear and see children—whatever their chronological age—die before they have known a growth experience; because I know the price of slavery my "brother" has paid for my so-called freedom; because I know the price I must pay to live and grow fully.

For me, militancy describes man's total commitment of himself to become himself and his total commitment of himself to help others become themselves. I distinguish this from the kind of militancy we have come to know, in which people sacrifice others in their quest to avoid exposure rather than discover themselves.

It is with this feeling knowledge of growth and price that I submit my own credo of militant humanism—a dozen propositions that guide my movement into the world and my emergence and growth within it. The first proposition has to do with understanding, an essential beginning point in any humanistic credo. Thereafter the propositions depart substantially from other humanistic positions, becoming more initiating and militant in tone.

PROPOSITION I:
Understand What Is There in Ourselves

This is the easiest proposition for humanists to incorporate into their credo. The essential beginning point in all human relations and human resource development is with ourselves. I must be able to understand my own experiences. I must be able to understand and respond to the experiences of others. If

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I am not aware of the variety, the depth, and the intensity of my personal experiences, then I am not in touch with myself. If I am not in touch with myself, I cannot be in touch with others.

The role of understanding and responding to what is there has typically been assigned to the mother in the Western world; the mother responds to the needs and feelings that are present in her child. The picture of the mother holding and feeding and loving her child—independent of his behavior—is a familiar one. In order to respond effectively to what is present in her children, she must be able to respond effectively to what is present in herself.

Our communication with others, then, begins with our communication with ourselves. However, we must be able to do more than respond to what is there. We must learn also to respond to what is not there. Responding to what is there prepares us for this. My own growth, I have found, has been a process of learning and responding to what is there, realizing what is missing, and then searching or building to meet the needs.

PROPOSITION II:
Understand What Is Not There in Ourselves

My ability to understand what is there is limited by my ability to understand what is not there. I can only understand fully what is there when I have grown to understand what is not there. I can nourish, nurture, and respond to an individual in terms of what he has expressed of his experience, but I can never understand him fully until I know what he has not experienced. If, for example, he declares his philanthropic disposition toward the world but does not act on it, then I will not fully understand his expressions of responsiveness until I understand the absence of initiative in him. If I in turn respond to myself only in terms of my intentions, then I will not hold myself accountable in terms of my own behavior.

The role of understanding and responding to what is not there has typically been assigned to the father in the Western world; the father responds to the dimensions that are absent or missing in his children but are, in his estimation, necessary for their adulthood. I am reminded of my Chicano friend's father, who never held or responded to his children with warmth and understanding, not because he could not or did not want to but because in his own way he meant to prepare them for the very difficult life that lay ahead of them. (By the way, he is now free to respond warmly with his grandchildren, because he feels that the danger in their world is less intense than it was in the world of his own children.)

PROPOSITION III:
Understand the Need to Act

Understanding the need to act is a natural extension of responding to what is not there. If I understand what is absent, I understand what is there. If I understand what is there at the deepest levels, I understand the need to act on what is not there. A growing person is as much a function of what he is not as of what he is. It is what he is that he builds on. It is what he is not that he reaches to become. Effective helpers understand these needs in their helpees. It is what motivates the helpee to act—the experience of having been understood fully by a helper who models behaviors that the helpee wants to incorporate into his own way of life. It was this consideration that led me in my early work in counseling to extend the helping model from one using responsive dimensions only to one incorporating initiative dimensions, problem solving, program development, and other kinds of skills programs. It was this consideration that led me from the romance of the one-to-one rehabilitation scene to the hard work of the preventive and educative activities of large-scale social action

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(Carkhuff 1971). Indeed, there is no rehabilitation without prevention. At the deepest levels, there is no understanding without action. But constructive action is not possible without the persons necessary to discriminate and model such behavior.

PROPOSITION IV:
Make Value Judgments

Making value judgments is the heart of militant humanism. A fully functioning person is capable of making value judgments concerning what is there and what is not there. The basis for his value judgments is simply this: Either the behavior is helpful or harmful to himself or others. If it is helpful to himself and/or others, it is "good." If it is harmful to himself and/or others, it is "bad." If it is helpful to himself and not harmful to others or not harmful to himself and helpful to others, it is "good" but capable of improvement. As a parent, I know I will never allow my child to do anything destructive to himself or others, and I will always encourage him to do things that are constructive for himself or others.

A further differentiation regarding helpfulness and harmfulness must be made. Helpfulness and harmfulness must be discriminated solely and exclusively by tangible evidence of physical, emotional, and intellectual growth. There are criteria of growth that are observable and measurable. For example, I must be judged by my own continuing growth in these areas and by the continuing growth of the people around me who are most intimately associated with me—my family, my friends, my colleagues, my helpees, and my trainees.

PROPOSITION V:
Act on Value Judgments

Acting on value judgments is the natural extension of making them. It is not enough simply to make value judgments

concerning what is helpful and what is harmful; I must also act on them. Further, I must live with the consequences of my actions. Accordingly, *I am committed to nourishing the forces of life and growth wherever and whenever I find them.* Again, if I have not understood what is not there, I cannot respond to what is there.

I cannot nourish life forces if I do not also destroy death forces wherever and whenever I find them. Many of us in the so-called human services are content to attempt to provide a haven for a few; together we huddle against the storms of a cruel and destructive world. This huddling is out of cowardice. We are the victims of the same vicious machines that produced the victims we would help. With our arms around each other we will drown—together. The commitment to life must be reinforced. The eager vitality of the young and innocent student must be nourished, as must the tired vitality of the battle-weary veteran teacher. If there is no justice for the parent, there is none for the child. The commitment to death, however, must be extinguished. The second grade teacher who achieves only seven months' reading growth in one year in her class or who develops seven stutterers a year must be, in this order, trained or retrained, treated, reassigned, or fired. Persons paid to discharge responsibilities in developing the resources of others must be held accountable. The effective helper knows that his essential task in helping is to nourish the life forces and destroy the death forces within an individual. The effective liver knows that his essential task in life is to nourish the life forces and destroy the death forces within his world.

PROPOSITION VI:
Follow Through in Achieving Values

Just as it is not enough to make value judgments, so also is it not enough to act on them. The goals are achieved in the

follow-through, not in the initiation. Successful treatment is accomplished in the after-care programs and not in the counseling hour.

Realize that there is a war. The war is between those who are effective in developing human resources and those who are not. This war is won in its day-by-day battles and not in its declaration. In this regard, I have seen little evidence demonstrating the effectiveness of so-called humanists. I have seen even less evidence of the disciplined existence necessary for the achievement of valued goals. When the major issue of a humanistic conclave is whether or not therapists should sleep with their clients —and most of the disagreement is not over whether it should be done but over establishing the conditions under which it should be done—then the humanists have failed to demonstrate either the helpfulness of their value system or their ability to achieve more worthwhile goals. There is no room for self-indulgence in the lives of people who are about something important. This is brought home most vividly by the contrast of the pseudo-growth concerns of those who search for such "freedom" in their lives and the survival concerns of those on whose slavery these "freedoms" are predicated. People who do not have themselves and their families "together" have no right to intervene in the lives of others. Too few humanists I know can claim this right.

PROPOSITION VII:
Demand of Ourselves
No Less Than We Can Be

This is a point of significant departure from humanistic principles as they are espoused in their most popular form today. The humanist tends to assume a consistent stance of "unconditional positive regard" or "nonpossessive warmth" or "nonretaliatory permissiveness" or some other such tongue-twisting nonsensical attitude. Of course, he can only do so in role relationships, particularly in the very early stages of human relationships. With intensity and intimacy come demands. The healthy person demands of himself no less than he can be. The fully functioning person demands of others no less than they can be at their developmental level. In order to demand of others, the fully functioning person must make fine discriminations. In addition, he must make a transition into the demanding phase. The fully functioning person will indeed find that he is most effective initially when he is unconditional in his regard for the other person. This nonretaliatory attitude, to be sure, encourages free experiencing, free expression, and free experimentation in behavior.

With the base of behavior, however, the fully functioning person will encourage the other person to establish a base of positive behavior at the next level. Again, he will make fine discriminations in communicating his positive regard for those behaviors that move the other person toward constructive development and growth. Finally, with the base of positive behaviors, the fully functioning person will become differential in his regard, communicating positive regard for positive behaviors and conditionality or negative regard for negative behaviors. In the highest level relationships, each party accepts the other at no less than he is capable of being and thus impels both himself and the other to increasingly higher levels of functioning. Good marriages are predicated on this principle: When either party would settle for less, the other asks for more.

PROPOSITION VIII:
Get Ourselves "Together" Physically,
Emotionally, and Intellectually

In order to make demands of myself and subsequently of others, I must have myself "together" physically, emotionally, and intellectually. Functioning on any one of these dimensions is ultimately

related to functioning on the others. At the highest levels, these dimensions are integrated in a fully functioning person, who is more than the sum of these dimensions. He is a full and moral being who is buttressed by a working cosmology that guides his development and predicts his world. If he is not physically strong, he cannot protect his loved ones. If he is not emotionally sensitive, he cannot stand for what he believes. If he is not intellectually acute, he cannot advance his cause for the actualization of all men's resources.

The years spent in physical, emotional, and intellectual development are not wearying years for the fully functioning person. They are fulfilling and energizing years, because he is about what he is about and he has increasingly larger resources to be about it.

PROPOSITION IX:
Acquire and Develop Substantive Skills

It is not enough to be together physically, emotionally, and intellectually. The fully functioning person must also acquire the skills necessary to develop, sustain, and complement his efforts. This principle is particularly noxious for many "do-your-own-thing" humanists because it requires work. Without work there are no skills. And without skills there is no delivery. Our degrees of freedom are a function of the discriminations we can make, and our discriminations are a function of the responses we have in our repertoires. We are as effective as the quantity and quality of skills we have in our response repertoires. No more. No less. Indeed, we are as spontaneous and creative in an area as we have responses in our repertoire in that area, for spontaneity and creativity are not possible without the basic responses in the repertoire. In addition, we are as effective as the repertoire of programs we can call upon to systematically fill an existing human need. And where there are no programs, we will

develop them, because, as part of our commitment, we have learned the skills necessary for such program development. A man without skills is not trustworthy, for he must live by guile.

PROPOSITION X:
Concede to People
More Functional Than Ourselves

When I walk onto any field of endeavor, I attempt to discover those persons who have the most to offer. I will make every effort to influence the situation so the most effective members of a team will be appointed "quarterbacks"—not to exclude input from the team but to direct the team's activities, because the most effective are best equipped to teach the members what they need to know in order to produce a winner. This is a very important principle of militant humanism, for demands, resources, and skills are not enough. The person who is functioning at his fullest, at whatever his level of development, must learn to concede to those who are functioning more fully than he. This is the source of his learning! This is the source of his growth! This is the source of his life!

In this manner, based on functionality, we develop a hierarchy of effectiveness in which those functioning at the highest levels guide and develop the resources and skills of those functioning at lower levels, perhaps even enabling them to grow beyond the level of the teacher. The higher the level of functioning of the helper, the more trustworthy he is in this regard. The basis of trust comes in experiencing the understanding of the fully functioning person. The basis of motivation comes in experiencing the skills of a fully functioning person. The basis of learning comes in learning with the fully functioning person. The basis of growth comes in growing with the fully functioning person. The basis of life comes in living with the fully functioning person.

PROPOSITION XI:
Develop Skills Acquisition Programs for People Who Are Less Functional

It is not enough to elicit trust through responsive behavior, nor is it enough to elicit motivation through initiating behavior. The fully functioning person must also provide the opportunity to close the gap between himself and those who are functioning at lower levels and who acknowledge him as an agent of their change. He can provide the opportunity to bridge this gap by developing systematic programs that take the learner, in a step-by-step fashion, to or beyond the level of the teacher. In other words, the ingredients in the learning organization are the trainer and the trainee. The modality is the program that relates these people to each other in the most efficient and effective way. In my own work in social action, I have found that I am only as good as the skills I have to offer the community I service. Indeed, I am only as good as the skills in which I can train them to service themselves. My contract with a minority group is a simple one: "Here is a set of skills I have that you can put to your use. I will be here for a limited period of time and will attempt to train myself out of my job."

PROPOSITION XII:
Commit Ourselves to Living at Any Cost

This is the place to end as well as begin. In every moment of every day we make life-and-death decisions. Some are small, some are large, but each leads toward its final culmination. I used to remind myself of these decisions several years ago, before I stopped going to faculty meetings. I asked myself, "How would I feel if I spent my last moments here?" Put another way, "Of what relevance is this for life—ours or anyone else's?" And I would get up and leave and return to the work of life.

The choice is ours—to concern ourselves with the irrelevancies that lead to deterioration and death or to commit ourselves to the relevancies that lead to growth and life. The choice is ours, and we must accept the responsibility for the decisions we make. We must accept the responsibilities for ourselves and for others, for when we choose for ourselves we choose for all mankind. If the only reason to live is to grow, then growth is worth any price—even work! The militant humanist trains for life, not only with specific goals in mind but also in preparation for meeting any moment in which he might be able to grab life more fully in whatever form it shows itself or in which he must be able to wrestle down death in whatever form it shows itself.

It is not enough to be willing to die for the cause of life. We must also be willing to live for the cause of life. ∎

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A model for career development through curriculum

L. SUNNY HANSEN

This article describes a practical model for a systematic, sequential approach to career development in the K–12 curriculum. The model builds on career development principles and vocational development tasks; it is self-concept oriented and uses a variety of methods and media in its implementation. Several strategies for facilitating career development are suggested for each level.

In the last few years a variety of models and programs have emerged that attempt to integrate career development concepts into the school curriculum. Although many of these are developmental, few have been comprehensive; many deal with only one aspect of career development (e.g., occupational information) rather than with the broad dimensions that go far beyond the world of work (Hansen 1970).

Many of the programs created in the mid-sixties were essentially piecemeal, fragmented efforts—someone's good idea that worked. Recent efforts seem to be characterized by more solid conceptual bases, more sophisticated program designs, and more comprehensive systems approaches that give major attention to content, process, and evaluation (Campbell, Walz, Miller & Kriger 1972). Among the salient characteristics of these programs are: (a) integration of career development through subjects and curriculum, K–12 or K–adult; (b) exploratory work or volunteer experiences in community sites; (c) hands-on experiences that integrate academic and vocational subjects; (d) career resource centers; (e) inservice training for faculty; (f) counseling, placement, and followup.

This article describes one model of career education, that in K–12, that might be appropriate in a variety of settings and school systems. Parts of it have been and are being tried at Marshall-University High School in Minneapolis and other school systems. The model is based on considerable evidence that students do not get the help they need or want in exploring themselves and careers and that the help they get often is based on outmoded matching models of vocational guidance that do not adequately take into account knowledge about the changing nature of the individual and his values, the changing world of technology and work, the lifelong process of career development and career decisions, and the psychological meanings of work and leisure to different groups and individuals.

The model assumes that career development is self-development, that it is "a process of developing and implementing a self-concept, with satisfaction to self and benefit to society [Super & Overstreet 1960]." It provides for exploration of self in relation to educational and vocational pursuits and in consideration of the place that work and leisure have in a person's life. It assumes that a career covers a variety of roles people play in life, including those of student, spouse, parent, and worker. It sees career development as one aspect of human development that forms a natural core for unify-

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ing curriculum and brings into conscious-
ness what many teachers already are
doing unconsciously. It sees career edu-
cation as the systematic, comprehensive
intervention for meeting career develop-
ment needs.

OBJECTIVES

With this framework in mind, what are
the objectives of a developmental career
education program? It is expected that
students who experience this program
would become more vocationally mature
persons who

• are aware of their own preferred life
styles and work values and can specify
skills, abilities, attitudes, roles, and val-
ues congruent with those preferences;

• exercise some control over their own
lives through conscious choices and plan-
ning and can choose from alternatives a
specific goal that is achievable and will
be satisfying;

• are familiar with the occupational op-
tions available in this society (major
families or clusters of occupations
grouped in some meaningful way), in-
cluding the opportunity structure, en-
trance requirements, and potential psy-
chological satisfactions;

• know the educational paths to and
financial requirements for preferred occu-
pations and careers;

• are familiar with the process of career
decision making;

• know the major resources available in
the school and community and are able
to identify, use, and expand those re-
sources (printed, human, and nonhuman)
most appropriate for their particular
goals;

• can organize and synthesize knowledge
about themselves and the work world
and can map strategies for achieving
their goals and modifying them if
desirable.

The strategies described here for ac-
complishing these objectives are, for the

most part, not new. In fact, many of
them have been selected from promising
practices around the country. Although
a few of the strategies are new, it is rather
their organization, level placement, and
sequencing that comprise the originality
of this article. Their description here is
intended merely to stimulate develop-
mental efforts in local schools and not to
provide a complete or finished pattern.
Together the strategies form a suggested
illustrative framework for maximizing
career development through career edu-
cation in a sequential curricular-com-
munity program.

THE STRATEGIES

Strategy One:
Orientation and Awareness
(Primary Years)

It is in the elementary years that atti-
tudes about self and work are formed;
during these years, therefore, the focus
needs to be on beginning to develop
self-awareness and a positive self-concept.
Very early in life students get images of
what they can and cannot do. It is cru-
cial that the early years concentrate on
helping children feel good about them-
selves and helping them communicate
what they are learning to value and to
do. There needs to be emphasis at this
stage on building communications and
interpersonal skills for everyday func-
tioning and for potential satisfaction in
work and other roles. Elementary chil-
dren also need ideas and information
about the work world in a broad sense.
Following are strategies that might be
used at this level.

Parent Role Models. Mothers and
fathers might be invited into the class-
room, wearing the uniforms and carry-
ing the tools of their trade, to talk with
students about their jobs. Such a tech-
nique could give students a feeling of
self-worth, provide information and
knowledge about workers, and instill

respect for people and the work they do. If parents are unavailable, other significant adults in the child's life might be invited.

Learning Parents' Jobs. Each pupil might be invited to spend half a day with his parents on the job to obtain a clearer picture of his mother's and father's occupation and work setting. Since this might not be feasible for all, some children could be invited to visit the work setting of a friend's parent.

Use of Subjects. Children could be exposed to career development concepts and occupations through the variety of subjects offered at the elementary level. Several sets of materials and media are available, including the DUSO Kit (Dinkmeyer 1970); Our World of Work (Wolfbein & Goldstein 1970); Texas Career Development Curriculum, K–6 (Laws 1971); Career Development and the Elementary School Curriculum (University of Minnesota 1971); and Project BEACON (Stiller 1968), which offers excellent suggestions for providing local role models and improving the self-concepts of inner-city elementary school children.

Tele-Lecture Systems. These systems might be especially useful at the elementary level in providing telephone interviews with workers in a variety of fields and settings. Since primary children may not be able to have many direct experiences in business and industry (especially in rural areas), the tele-lecture arrangement, where 30 or more students can talk with a famous or a local person about his work satisfactions, life style, job requirements, and leisure opportunities, offers another medium for students to develop awareness and obtain information.

Strategy Two:
Prevocational Self-Exploration Experiences (Intermediate or Middle School Years)

With the middle or junior high school student's orientation toward social and physical development, appropriate fo-

cuses here could be on (a) recognition of personal strengths and emerging values and goals; (b) awareness of individual potentials and the ultimate need to choose those that need to be more fully developed in order to achieve life goals; (c) awareness of the influence of friends, family, other role models, and significant others on emerging goals; (d) awareness of emerging personal styles; and (e) exploration of the worlds of education, occupation, and work, with emphasis on an activity-oriented program. Following are strategies that might be used at this level.

Strength Groups. Coeducational strength groups, well planned and structured, could meet weekly to focus on "What I can do and what I can do best." They could be led by counselors, teachers, or paraprofessionals with some training in career development and group process. A restructured homeroom model, using teacher-counselors in life planning labs, might be one approach.

Career Resources. Regular use of human and multimedia resources can be facilitated in a career resource center. Teachers can plan field trips that help students begin to get realistic information about the occupational world, with the emphasis on workers and processes rather than products. Teachers can also arrange for speakers—including parents of their students—to come into the classroom and talk about their work, its satisfactions, and its dissatisfactions. It is at this level that students begin their orientation to occupational clusters or families, and teachers can plan special interest career tours such as "Know your local merchants."

Broadening Role Models. In this systematic one-to-one or small group program, boys and girls get a chance to see men and women in nontraditional careers. The tendency toward too early a narrowing of career choices might be offset by identification with men and

women in atypical careers (telephone repairwomen; female auto mechanics, dentists, computer programmers, and executives; male nurses, physical therapists, elementary teachers, and day care workers) and workers in emerging careers (environmental careers, health sciences, alternate schools). Filmstrip cassettes such as *Jobs and Gender* (Guidance Associates, Inc. 1971) might facilitate this strategy if live role models are not available. A directory of such life style models might be prepared.

Tentative Career Hypothesis. Each junior high student would have an opportunity to examine and assess a tentative career hypothesis through case study group approaches, autobiographical career lifelines, and group and individual counseling. He could begin to reality test present achievements and goals in relation to tentative educational and vocational plans. Emphasis would be on opening up rather than narrowing down possibilities at this level.

Strategy Three:
Career Exploration Module
(8th or 9th Grade)

In this module the cooperation of volunteers, aides, counselors, parents, and other community resources would be sought to assist the eighth or ninth grade teachers (English, social studies, core, or interdisciplinary team) in developing and implementing a career exploration learning package that would give junior high students exposure to the kinds of data and experiences described below.

Decision Making Process. Students would learn about the elements in the process of decision making—values, alternatives, probabilities, possibilities, consequences of choosing or not choosing certain options, and action plans. Such resources as *A Task-Oriented Course in Decision-Making* (Wilson 1967) and the College Entrance Examination Board's

junior high program *Deciding* (Varenhorst, Gelatt & Carey 1972) would be helpful tools at this level.

Simulation Experiences. Experience in motivational job problem solving through use of the *Job Experience Kits* (Krumboltz 1969) could provide one means of job-task tryout. Simulated adult decision making in the areas of family, education, occupation, and leisure, through use of the *Life Career Game* (Boocock 1967, 1968), has been demonstrated to be of value in promoting career development, especially with academically marginal youth.

Manpower and Economic Trends. Students need information about trends in the work world—manpower trends, poverty, occupational status of women, opportunity structure, emerging and obsolescent jobs, and effects of automation and cybernation. Such media as the U.S. Department of Labor's (1970) brochure *Manpower Trends in the 70's* and its accompanying slides would be appropriate.

Classifying the Work World. An important part of any career education program is information about the organization and classification of the world of work. Such information gives students a conceptual map of the occupational world, bringing its vast possibilities down to manageable and comprehensible size. It would be important to begin with some grouping of occupations by job families, interests, subjects, clusters, fields, or levels. Suggestions for groupings are offered by the Human Resources Research Organization's occupational clustering system (Taylor, Montague & Michaels 1972), the Science Research Associates' *Job Family Booklets* (1965), and the Ohio Vocational Interest Survey (D'Costa, Winefordner, Odgers & Koons 1968). The 15 U.S. Office of Education career clusters (Hardwick 1971) also could be considered for their functionality, appropriateness, and meaning for students.

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Using Multimedia Resources. Enriching personal growth experiences can be gained through visits and orientation to career resource centers and other information centers. This can increase students' awareness of the many possibilities for door-opening contacts with business and industry. Familiarity with the many kits, films, filmstrips, cassettes, and other media available for a career exploration program can help accelerate the vocational planning process. Volunteers and paraprofessionals could be of immeasurable help in this aspect of a program. The Newton, Massachusetts, Career Information Center (Circle, Clemens, Kroll & Overholt 1968) and the Marshall-University High Resource Center (Hansen 1971) offer models to consider.

Career Development Contract. An alternate approach would be to have students create their own career development contract, in which they (a) specify tentative goals, (b) determine where they are now, (c) identify what they have to change in order to get where they want to go, and (d) develop an action plan with a teacher, friend, or counselor in order to bring about that change. This kind of approach could be repeated at many stages, including the senior high level. It has potential as a vehicle for helping students modify their own behavior and for bringing real and ideal self-concepts into greater congruence.

Strategy Four:
Senior High Career Information Program
(9th–12th Grades)
This aspect of the program would move away from traditional career day formats to a series of career information speakers, interviews, and field trips available to all students on a regularly scheduled basis. Such a program, which might include content relating to self, educational-vocational alternatives, the decision making process, and the job market outlook, could be built into the curricular program of a high school in the following ways:

1. The program would provide an orientation for all students to human and nonhuman resources available in the school (e.g., a career resource center) and community. The first year of the program all senior high grades would need to be included; thereafter only freshmen and other new students would need to participate. An elective course in the psychology of careers could be offered to those students interested in indepth exploration.

2. The program would consist of occupational information programs given throughout the school year, organized and implemented by paraprofessionals or volunteers under the aegis of school counselors. It would develop the mechanics for getting students out into business and industry and for bringing representatives from business and industry into the school. Where representatives are unable to come to the school, a tele-lecture system would enable students to have life style interviews with a variety of individuals, obtain direct information about manpower (and womanpower) supply and demand, and interview key people about their particular fields or about issues and trends.

3. Each month the program would focus on broad occupational families or job clusters. Choice of grouping or clustering of occupations should take into account local industries and fields in which a school's graduates tend to find employment. All levels of skills, abilities, and training would be included for all the broad educational paths available in the post-secondary years.

4. As part of his or her own career exploration and decision making, each student would be encouraged to attend at least two information sessions per quarter; a one- or two-hour block of time would be scheduled each week, for which students would sign up in advance. Sessions would be tape recorded and put in a cassette library of educational-vocational information so that those missing

a particular program could listen at a later time. Volunteers and students could help monitor the program. The model developed by the Vancouver, Washington, Public Schools (Lothspeich 1967) can serve as a useful prototype.

5. Besides the scheduled weekly programs, a career resource center would be open to students engaged in self-directed searches or class projects. These students would come in to use kits, printed materials, computers, films, filmstrips, and cassettes. Volunteers or paraprofessionals, under the leadership of counselors, would be available to assist in the process and to arrange personal contacts, field trips, and interviews with workers in business and industry.

Strategy Five: Exploratory Occupational Information Interviews (10th–12th Grades)

With some training and modeling, a structured, exploratory interview between a trained volunteer and a senior high student could be scheduled. The purposes of this occupational information interview would be to (a) determine where the student is in his career planning; (b) obtain information about the student's vocational planning; (c) facilitate and accelerate the student's thinking about and acting on imminent decisions; (d) identify types of information the student needs that could be provided through volunteers and a career resource center; and (e) inform the student about the information and resources available in the school and community to assist in planning and exploration. Arranged by the counseling department as part of the counseling program, the interviews could be scheduled on a half-hour basis. Students would be informed that information is confidential and will be shared only with the student's counselor. Any student who chose not to have such an interview could do so. The volunteer would try to follow through with each student in identifying information and resources for exploration (Hansen 1971).

Strategy Six: Career Contracts With Counselor or Teacher-Counselor (11th–12th Grades)

Typically each high school junior and senior has at least one interview with his counselor about his post-high-school goals, plans, and decisions. In some schools a teacher-counselor or teacher-advisor assumes this function. Goals of this contract would be to help students (a) examine and synthesize their goals and values; (b) become aware of the forces and events that influence their decisions; (c) reality test their tentative decisions through a variety of tryout experiences—on the job, as volunteers, and through directed observation; (d) use the many resources available to them to obtain specific information about post-high educational and work options; and (e) modify their goals and plans as appropriate.

The "career competency contract" that has been tried out in the Wisconsin schools (Drier 1971) offers an excellent model for this phase of an individual's development. Students have their own individual advisory committee, consisting of a teacher, a counselor, a parent, and a representative from their occupational interest field, to help them identify and develop the career competencies needed to meet their goals.

Strategy Seven: Exploratory Work Experience (10th–12th Grades)

During the senior high years all students —especially seniors—should have the option of getting involved in a directed exploratory work experience to help them reality test their goals and work values. An Antioch-type high school program is envisioned, in which students have an opportunity for guided work or volunteer experience in a local business or industry as part of their curricular experience. Such a program would include the cooperative work program but be much broader in scope, including *all* students—not just the selected few typically reached. It could be scheduled in

a variety of ways throughout the school year and summer (interim program, Christmas experience, semester option, etc.). A program of this nature already has been operational for some years in the Whittier, California, Unified School District (Eisen 1966) and could serve as a model for other high schools. Implementation of this strategy would require long-range planning, with commitments from teachers and administrators to allow part of the school day or school year to be used for this experience. It would also require extensive collaboration with business and industry and a commitment from them to hire, host, or supervise students in these exploratory capacities.

Strategy Eight:
Career Development Subject Teams
(Junior and Senior High)

To help integrate career development concepts into the curriculum, career development subject teams could be organized to help identify ways in which school subjects could be related more closely to careers and the world of work. Teams could consist of a teacher from the subject area, a counselor, a volunteer, a parent, a worker in a field related to the subject, and two or more students. The teams would brainstorm possible programs and ideas that would create in students a greater awareness of and sensitivity to (a) the career possibilities of a subject area—both the broad range of occupations related to the field and the potential self-actualizing (or debasing) features of the occupations; (b) the educational paths leading to those fields; (c) the leisure implications of the subject; and (d) the way the subject relates to the development of one's personal goals and identity. Special programs to develop the potentials of girls, minorities, and populations with other special needs could be created at various levels and stages. Program ideas could be screened for feasibility and carried out jointly by the teams, the department involved, and a career development ad-

visory committee. Learning packages for career development through curriculum are being developed at the University of Minnesota (Tennyson, Klaurens & Hansen 1970) and are available for field testing through subjects.

A METHOD OF ORGANIZATION

While there is no best way to assure development and implementation of a systematic career development/career education program, an organizational strategy that might facilitate such implementation is the formation of a career development advisory committee or task force, K–12. Such a group could help monitor, implement, evaluate, and revise a developmental plan. The committee could include one teacher from each subject or cluster area, a student from each grade level, a counselor, an administrator, a parent, and representatives from business and industry. A steering committee, consisting of a vocational teacher, an academic teacher, a student, a parent, an administrator, a community representative, and a counselor, could serve as a core group to make recommendations to the larger group.

A CAUTION

No systematic career development/career education program can emerge full-blown at any given time. Some strategies might be more feasible and appropriate with some populations and settings than with others; students of the same age might be at different stages of readiness for planning and exploration; and some school systems initially might be better able to handle one part of a program than absorb a total plan. Although the goals and possibilities may be apparent, each school will have to select those portions of the program or create other developmental strategies that are most appropriate to the needs of its students and most adaptable to its facilities, personnel, and resources.

It is likely that the process of developing a comprehensive program of this

scope would require the services of a full-time career guidance specialist. But the starting points and the possibilities for implementation will have to be decided by a number of people—representing key groups within the system—who are interested in and concerned about the career (self-)development of students and the help they are getting in this vital and pervasive aspect of their lives. Attention to strategies for the change *process* is imperative. It seems that the probability for success would be heightened if all groups within the school, particularly those most affected by such a program—the students themselves—are well represented in the decision making process from the very beginning. ∎

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The psychiatrist, the counselor, and the school

DAVID W. CLINE

Based on a general systems analysis model, the holistic approach to counseling spans every level and interaction effect from the gene to the interpersonal to the community and beyond. One of the major functions of the counselor in this approach is opening and maintaining communications among groups in the various school and community subsystems. The author of this article, a psychiatrist, stresses the use of the holistic approach in (a) the training and role of the psychiatrist, (b) the school and its subsystems, (c) the role of the guidance counselor, and (d) the interaction between the guidance counselor and the psychiatrist.

A psychiatrist's training emphasizes the treatment of people with emotional difficulties. He learns, first and foremost, how to talk intimately with his clients; this intimate verbal (and nonverbal) communication separates him from all other medical specialists. Over the course of his training, he develops himself as a specialized measuring tool, something like a thermometer, to sense his patients' moods and unspoken communications: happiness, sadness, love, hate, euphoria, depression, and a myriad of other feelings. He is thus able to direct his patient toward discovering his own feelings and finding new coping skills.

Child psychiatrists gain in addition skills in treating the child and the adolescent with emotional problems. Because the child usually does not speak directly about his problems but acts them out symbolically in his play and other activities, a different style is required for child psychiatry, mainly that of skill in the language of symbolic communication. Work with the adolescent is particularly difficult because at his age the establishment of transference, a basic tool in effecting change through psychotherapy, is difficult.

Another important skill for psychiatrists is that of consultation. Since the present number of practicing psychiatrists cannot possibly attend individually to everyone with problems, they must learn how to serve a greater number by guiding others, such as guidance counselors, teachers, and community agencies, who are in direct contact with problems of abnormal behavior.

THE HOLISTIC APPROACH AND THE SCHOOL SETTING

A special approach to the individual and the way he exists in his world is taught during the psychiatrist's consultation experience. This approach, whether it is called "holistic," "existential," or "man and his totality," attempts to answer the question: What is the individual? It attempts to do so by noting how various contents and contexts affect the indi-

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vidual's style and behavior, starting with the most minute and proceeding to the broadest level—from genetic effect to national effect. The approach deals with, in the following order: (a) the genetic or chromosomal effect; (b) the effect of body cells; (c) the effect of body organs; (d) the effect of organ systems and their cooperation; (e) the organism, or the person himself, as a combination of organ systems with internal dynamics; (f) the organism as a member of the family, with interpersonal relationships; (g) the organism as a member of a school; (h) the organism as a member of a community; and (i) the organism as a member of a nation.

Ordinarily physicians work in the area of the cells, the organs, and the organ systems; sociologists in the area of the community and the school; psychoanalysts in the intrapersonal area; and guidance counselors in the area of schooling.

Examining the school and its components to get a better picture of its subsystems, the following groups and their functions can be seen. Teachers impart knowledge and provide a maturing experience for the students; administrators, who set up the milieu of the school system, provide the superstructure in which teachers do their jobs and also supervise the teachers and students; guidance counselors counsel and provide constructive guidance; and finally, students receive the benefit of the three aforementioned groups.

Students can be divided into various levels of education, such as freshmen or seniors. But a more important division among students is their social cliques. At the top of the social ladder in a typical school is the main group—the ingroup—the leaders and the athletes. They belong to various clubs and are in the forefront of school activities. Most of them come from upper middle class homes and will go on to college. Below them is a group trying to attain the status of the ingroup; they are sometimes included in ingroup activities but seem really not to belong there. They might be the campaign managers when members of the top group run for office. Members of the third group are usually in trouble, often involved in acts of delinquency and truancy. They may have difficulty with their studies and drop out of school before graduation. A long-haired New Left group may also exist; they are frequently outstanding scholastically, extremely sensitive, and intelligent. They may be called the loners or the rebelling group.

It is important to realize that each of these systems and subsystems exists across time and that each person passes through similar systems. What directs a life style? Why does one person become a guidance counselor and another a child psychiatrist? What are the critical periods in life that direct a person to go to college, to choose a particular vocation, to decide to teach or counsel in a particular school, to select a spouse, to have children or not?

Think back on the critical events of your life; you may recall specific instances that directed you toward your present life style. What was your social class? Did you get invited to all the special parties? Were you a member of the ingroup? How did you get a scholarship to go on to school? Where did you meet your spouse? How did you ever finish college and get into graduate school? And how about the things that could have kept you out of the position you hold now? What if the breaks had gone the other way and you had been arrested for the mischief you got into on Halloween? Or gotten caught shoplifting? Or gotten caught doing any one of the number of things that would have sent you to the police station, the judge, or even the psychiatrist?

It is indeed a miracle that any of us achieved our present positions in life. It is rather striking that each of us passed through these many systems and was processed by them.

How can (and should) the guidance counselor affect individuals who are at that point in the system where they are getting schooling and guidance toward mature, successful development as productive human beings? The role of the guidance counselor in direct service to the student includes vocational guidance and counseling, testing of aptitude, appraisal of achievement as related to the student's capacity, and specific counseling regarding behavioral problems. In carrying out these functions, the guidance counselor has certain responsibilities to other members of the school subsystems: the administrators, the teachers, and the students themselves. Since the guidance counselor's office is usually near the administrative offices, the principal or superintendent of the school is, in effect, looking over his shoulder. They expect him to help assure that the school runs properly and in order. The guidance counselor is often called on by the principal when a problem child is disrupting school activities. Or a teacher may ask him why a student is not working up to his capacity when the student's IQ shows that he has ability significantly above the level at which he is working.

When the student comes into the counselor's office and the door is shut, excluding the teacher and the administrator, the counselor has a responsibility to the student himself: He is to help him achieve more productively the goals for which he aims. This is also the responsibility of the administrator, the teacher, and even the parents, so they need not be excluded from the one-to-one relationship between the counselor and the student. Often, however, a student seeking a counseling relationship will solicit a contract stipulating that the counselor will not divulge any of the information the student gives him.

In my own work with adolescents I explain in the treatment contract that I may use any information they give me as I talk over the problem with other members of the involved community, such as parents, school administrators, or teachers. The clever adolescent often seeks an alliance with the school counselor in an effort to subdue the administration, his parents, or other teachers, and the counselor must be careful not to play inadvertently into his hands. This is not to say that the counselor should be antagonistic and constantly on guard with the adolescent client; he should simply be aware that this client may attempt to manipulate him and should, in fact, consider such manipulation matter-of-factly as something any normal adolescent with problems might want to accomplish.

What approach should the counselor use to allow him to work most effectively with his student clients? I believe it is the holistic approach, for it allows accurate assessment of the problem, simplifies decisions, and clarifies guidance of the client. In sizing up the problem, the counselor should take into account as many systems and subsystems as possible —not only internal states, such as the function of the student's body organs and organ systems, but his family, school, and community relationships as well. It is especially important to look at a client's relationship with his family, since so many difficulties of behavior and learning occur in this context and it is in this context that the problem is best solved. If the problem concerns the client's relationship with the teacher or administrator, the problem should be solved within that context. What I am suggesting is that the counselor act as liaison or communications helper by bringing together the individuals involved in the difficulty and helping them confront the problem. This may involve teachers, administrators, parents, siblings, or the family physician or pastor.

Specific case illustrations of the holistic

approach might facilitate understanding of some of these points.

Case 1: A Suicide Attempt

I first met Jane, an attractive college freshman, in the emergency room of a hospital. She had been brought there by her roommate, who found her asleep on the floor, a note nearby saying that she had taken five sleeping pills and did not want to live any longer. I treated the organism by pumping the stomach, an organ system, and in doing so protected from further damage the cells of the body that compose the other organ systems.

After Jane woke up, I asked her about her interpersonal problems, specifically those related to her associations with her parents, her teachers, and her boyfriend. She gave some hints that things were not happy in the family, especially between her parents. Her parents were notified of her whereabouts and arrived the following afternoon. They were upset by the news of their daughter's suicidal gesture but were willing to explore the reasons for its occurrence.

We all sat down together in an attempt to delineate what kinds of problems caused such a disaster. To my great surprise, I learned that this family had not talked together in such a manner for years. Old family secrets were divulged and openly discussed, such as the father's affair with another woman and the mother's threatening divorce, both facts of which had been kept secret from Jane and her siblings.

The most impressive facet of the whole discussion was the manner in which it transpired: The family was talking together, the lines of communication were open, and the family members were again engaging with one another at a meaningful level. I do not wish to imply that simply talking together solves all problems, but reestablishing lines of communication between individuals involved in a myriad of problems goes a long way toward problem resolution and in many cases does solve a problem completely.

That afternoon I had to say hardly a word; to be frank, I did not need 15 years of study to get the family together, have them sit down in one room with the door closed, and say, "Okay, now let's talk about what's happened." My role was simply to provide a means by which communication could be established between the affected members of this family. This is a role that the guidance counselor can also readily fulfill, especially since he will usually know more about a student's school and social milieu than a visiting psychiatrist.

Case 2: A Pregnant Teenager

One Tuesday morning as a guidance counselor was entering the school, the assistant principal told him that a junior girl, Mary, allegedly had been running around a lot of late, attending wild parties with college boys. He asked the counselor to have a chat with her to see what was the matter. The counselor agreed. On the way to his office, the counselor met a teacher who said that Mary had been acting rather strangely in school. She was irritable, teased the other students, caused disturbances in the classroom, and reacted somewhat arrogantly when corrected. The teacher also asked the counselor if he would have a talk with Mary and see what was going on.

The counselor was not surprised to find Mary standing outside his door waiting for him. She was dressed in a broad, full skirt and a loose-fitting blouse. She shyly asked if she might see him. The counselor took her into his office and shut the door, thereby momentarily closing out all other parts of the system and leaving him and Mary in a one-to-one relationship.

Mary first stated that she had a problem, saying that she needed the counse-

lor's complete confidence and trust before she could talk about it. The counselor recognized the manipulative nature of this provision and therefore reassured Mary that he was sincerely interested in helping her in the best way he could with whatever problem she had but that this might mean at times involving other people. She thought about this for a moment and then tearfully proclaimed that she was pregnant. The counselor asked Mary how she knew she was pregnant and whether or not she had been to a doctor. She explained that she was sure she was pregnant—she had missed her period for two months—but that she had not been to see a doctor. The counselor asked if her parents knew, and Mary said, "No. Nobody knows, not even him." After several tearful moments, the counselor pointed out to her that it would be necessary eventually to tell her parents, and since this was a family matter, it would be best dealt with by them. With this directive from the counselor, Mary quickly went on to talk about her feelings toward her parents. She was much relieved by his acceptance of and realistic approach to her problem. At the end of the session Mary asked if the counselor would accompany her that evening when she told her parents about her problem. He agreed to do so.

That evening in her family living room, Mary, sitting next to the counselor, told her parents that she was pregnant. The mother went into deep sobs, questioning what she had done wrong. The father looked progressively sadder and said, "I guess I've just spent too much time out of the home." Father, mother, and daughter all had a good cry, and the counselor felt like crying himself, since he felt he was witnessing one of the first tender moments of interaction that this family had experienced. He left the family residence knowing that the problem was where it belonged and feeling somewhat exhilarated by having been in on a profound life experience.

THE COUNSELOR AND THE SYSTEM

A mere confrontation after sizing up a problem will not, of course, provide the complete answer for all problems. It may be necessary for the counselor to get help from others, such as the school social worker, the school psychologist, or even the visiting school psychiatrist. The school counselor should have a thorough knowledge of these human resources, as they can be of great help in correcting a disruptive situation. No matter who is involved, whether it is the child guidance clinic, the family physician, the principal, the teacher, the family, the child, the child's siblings, or the police, communication between these individuals must be opened up and kept open. If the guidance counselor can do this, he can perform a valuable function in the management of these difficult problems.

The guidance counselor, in his unique position, has the ability and the responsibility to see where the school system itself inhibits the accomplishment of experiential knowledge. He has the responsibility to help the systems run smoothly. He can analyze and effectively influence the subsystems within the school, first making a systems analysis of the school in the same way that he analyzes individual clients. Specifically, he needs to note what cliques of teachers there are, how the administration gets along with the teachers, and what the relationship of the school board is to the school administration, the teachers, and the community. In his focal position he can help these groups look at themselves, pointing out what roadblocks they create that get in the way of the primary task of educating children. A case illustration will serve as an example.

Case 3: A Pawn in Their Game

A guidance counselor was consulted by a sixth grade boy who wondered whether he should volunteer to be in the open-

classroom program for the seventh grade. He had doubts because, after he had shown interest in that program, several of his sixth grade teachers had pressured him not to get into that program but to continue in the traditional, structured classroom setting that they were partial to.

This was really a problem between teacher groups, involving some teachers' envy of the preferential treatment being given to one teacher and her open-classroom program; but the battle they fought directly involved the child. In this case the guidance counselor, with the help of the principal, organized a discussion group among the teachers to promote better understanding and coop-eration between the teachers in the structured and the nonstructured programs. He thus prevented further problems that would have made it difficult for students to get through the system.

CONCLUSION

The holistic approach to the individual in a system not only helps in assessing the problem but also gives valuable cues as to what tools are available for managing it. From successful management of problems comes a sense of well-being that makes the guidance counselor's whole task a very worthwhile one and puts him in better touch with that exquisite, beautiful phenomenon: the human being. ■

CARDINAL COUNSELING

When all the theories have been
    verified and repudiated,
When all the test scores have been
    collected and indicated,
When all the cognitive questions have been
    asked, and the answers found,
When all the affective cues have been
    around;

Then the counselor will realize:
    some have it and
    some don't; but
    for each individual,

He is the vehicle
    who may help this person find himself.

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Toward
Better
Conventions

One of the main functions of APGA is holding its conventions. But in recent years there have been many complaints about the conventions: too many competing sessions, too many dull and valueless meetings, the hassles in getting around a large downtown area to go from meeting to meeting, the expenses of hotels, meals, travel, etc., etc., etc. Practically everybody agrees that major improvements are needed.

In 1973 APGA will try an experiment: three conventions in three different parts of the country at three different times. We have wanted to bring our readers some word about the plans that have been developing, and when Jon Boller's article commenting on the 1972 Convention in Chicago came in, we thought this would provide a good stimulus. So we sent his manuscript to the three 1973 Convention Coordinators and invited them to write their reactions to it and also tell us what they plan to do to make their conventions better than what we've had in the past.

A few weeks later the Hedlund-Kramer article arrived, and we decided that it would add another dimension to this issue by describing an innovative kind of session that was held at the 1972 Chicago Convention.

We think that readers will be better prepared to make best use of the 1973 Conventions if they read this material. And we hope too that chairpersons and presenters will find some ideas here that they can put to good use in San Diego, St. Louis, or Atlanta. See you there! ■ *Leo Goldman*

There's a convention communication gap

JON D. BOLLER

The national conventions of most professional organizations are usually "grand" occasions, and the APGA Convention in Chicago in the early spring of 1972 was no exception. Conventioneers came from across the nation (proportionately more from the Midwest) to attend three full days of programs and workshops, parties, get-togethers, and general idea sharing. The Chicago snow brought with it delays in schedules, and for some of our suntanned colleagues from the South and Southwest the walk between convention site hotels was probably something of a chore. Despite the weather, activities characteristic of many professional meetings moved along smoothly under the roofs of some of Chicago's more luxurious hotels. Elsewhere I have mentioned a few of the more dubious aspects of the "activities" I observed at the 1971 Convention (Boller 1972), but I readily admit that these experiences have been my own, as seen only through my eyes.

Numerous voices have been raised against the idea of having a convention at all. For the school counselor who wants to attend, the convention often is extremely expensive, is too far away, or uses up valuable schoolworking time that administrators feel is better spent on the job. More than a few of the programs are either poorly planned, too academic and far removed from the mainstream of daily counseling practice, or more representative of the needs of the presenters than directed to the value and utility they might have for the people who attend. Some people are convinced that the convention parties and reunions are the most important events

or that meals in big-city restaurants on school expense accounts make the trip sufficiently rewarding.

Taking into consideration that the size and scope of such an annual meeting may be too expensive, too far away, and generally "too much" for many practicing counselors, APGA has instituted a regional convention schedule for 1973. Thus there will be three meeting sites—in Atlanta, St. Louis, and San Diego. It is hoped that these more local meeting sites will allow for more equal geographic representation and attendance. Meanwhile, the controversy still swings both ways; in Atlantic City in 1971 "Twice as many people voted their preference for annual conventions as voted for the biennial, regional conventions [Davis 1972, p. 507]."

GETTING TOGETHER

What is the substance of a convention? It is an assembly of professional people coming together at a central meeting point to share with each other activities and experiences. Perhaps for some of these people it is a time of recommitment or rededication. Hays (1972, p. 511) wondered what the convention was all about, especially regarding the lack of communication between professional people "so adept in the field of communication (or are we?)." It is extremely difficult, at times, for professional people to communicate to one another even the simplest of ideas at a convention; the pressure to get from one place to another, to meet program schedules, to hear what "everybody" is saying precludes any real closeness and sharing.

Yet it seems to me that there is a way for people interested in a closer sharing —beyond the usual lecturer-audience program format—to get together. There is a way for people who truly want to

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get involved with other people to bridge the convention communication gap. I was involved in a session on the last day of the 1972 Convention in which I think I, and more than a few other people, learned something quite extraordinary about each other and about people at conventions.

THE WORKSHOP AND ITS FEEDBACK

The program I'm referring to was an all-day "extended skills" workshop; its focus was to be the developing, redefining, and improving of skills in group work. We intended to deal with the problems a counselor may face when introducing group concepts into his school, and the discussion was to be based on experiences the presenters had had in a variety of settings. In the morning the program consisted of an informal discussion of several projects designed to sensitize teachers to group techniques and included a scant accumulation of data gleaned from these projects. After breaking for lunch, we met in a small group in the afternoon to go through the exercises and general format of "introductory" groups such as we have been running for school teachers in Minnesota —a sort of learning-by-doing approach.

The afternoon group and the workshop as a whole were a success—but not for the reasons we expected. We originally had decided to define success in terms of how skillfully we could reproduce the format and how well we could convince others that we had a good thing for people in counseling to use—but the group's direction took a turn. People in the group, representing several states, found themselves speaking of the value of the group not primarily in terms of professional learning, although that was certainly a part, but mainly in terms of the true sharing that was taking place among these professionals. It was mentioned again and again that here at last was an activity that allowed people to become really involved with one another

—a session format different from the norm. (The norm, as I have seen it, consists of a speaker and/or a panel of reactors discussing a topic among themselves while the audience is busily occupied scribbling notes on the back of the program guide and formulating questions that never get asked.)

The people in the group represented a broad spectrum of counseling roles as well as geographical areas; present were a state supervisor of guidance, a vocational counselor, a school counselor, and others. Most of them had been to many conventions prior to this one. One of these people later summarized his feelings about the group and his concerns for programs at national conventions. I have paraphrased his commentary.

I've been coming to these conventions now for many years. During that time I've met a great number of people, attended numerous workshops and programs, and conducted business professionally as I've seen fit. In all these years I've always felt a closeness to people and wanted to get to know more people in our profession. But, probably due to my own shyness or lack of social aggressiveness, I've come to these meetings year after year and stood around wishing I could get to know more people, communicate with people, get beyond the parties and the "Hey, Joe, how ya doing, where ya at?" conversations. I've wanted to get truly involved with people, if only for a short time. Yet I seem to be always standing in my corner, wanting to walk up to that fellow over there and say "Hi! I'm me, and I'd like to get to know you."

Maybe that sounds silly, and maybe that fellow over there doesn't really want to get to know me or anyone else anyway. But then again, what if he does? What if he's as shy as I am? Surely, in this profession we're all in, where initiating and developing warm, positive, *human* relationships is so essential to our everyday existence, we must feel that desire to get to know somebody a little better. And—pardon the pompous boast here—we're supposed to be trained to do this with a fair amount of skill and resourcefulness.

Yet year after year I've come and it's the same old story. In this group, however, I met some people. I don't know if this was your purpose—that we should go beyond a simple group experience—but I'm glad I've had the opportunity to share *myself* as well as my ideas with you, and you

me, I'll go back home and take with me a
[...] of what each of you has said. I'll know
[...] little more, not from a lecture, but from the
[...] involvement we've experienced. I'll function a
little better in my role because I'll be a little
more attuned to what others are doing and
thinking. Disregarding the parties, programs,
conferences, planning meetings, and other func-
tions I've attended, I feel that I'm going home
with something a little more personal and mean-
ingful to me. I like this "experiencing" type of
workshop because *I was a part of it.*

Testimonials are really only meaning-
ful to those who are being testimonial-
ized. But every once in a while, as I
listened to this man, I could remember
having had those very same feelings and
reactions to conventions I'd attended. I
thought about the differences between
"experiential" and straightforward lec-
ture workshops and programs. I recalled
all the times I'd sat in a large room
listening to a reaction panel, a distin-
guished speaker, or a debate, remember-
ing how removed and uninvolved I'd
felt. I could remember wanting to ask a
question and knowing my hand might
not be seen 20 rows back; being afraid
to speak out; asking the guy next to me,
"What'd he say?" and the guy next to me
saying, "Don't know; I can't hear him
too well." And I remember thinking,
"Convention themes always seem to
connote involvement, yet this kind of
activity certainly doesn't contribute to
the kind of involvement the convention
planners must have had in mind when
they decided on its title."

THE NEED FOR EXPERIENTIAL PROGRAMS

Developing an experiential program, or
including its components into a regular
format, seems to be one alternative to
the convention communication gap.
(The Minnesota Personnel and Guid-
ance Association Program Committee
has settled on an experientially oriented
conference theme for its 1973 midwinter
meeting.) While there is definitely a
need for traditional programs, it seems
there is also a need for programs allow-
ing for more involvement and inter-

action. As Davis says, "One new idea per
day would be adequate compensation,
plus the social contacts [1972, p. 507]."
Experiential workshops and programs
would permit more interpersonal com-
munication between professionals and
might provide an atmosphere in which
that "one new idea" could be developed.

A letter from a member of our work-
shop provided me with a "new idea." It
said, in part:

That was a very interesting session that you guys
had, and for *it* I really enjoyed my trip home.
The one thing that got to me was that so many
people I met at the convention expressed alone-
ness and . . . wished that there was something
that could be done. How can we facilitate inter-
personal communication between people who
haven't met before? What kind of atmosphere
needs to be set to produce some efficiency so
people can rap? I really think that this needs
some study and could be useful, not only for
APGA, but for other conventions as well.

So I decided that it wasn't the conven-
tions and all the pomp and circumstance
and the bigness of things that were at
fault. And, obviously, for a fair number
of people conventions are always going
to be too far away, too expensive, or too
time-consuming. Perhaps "national" ver-
sus "regional" is not the issue either.
I feel that what is important is that we
find ways to build into our conventions
more experiential programs, in which
people who wish to may become deeply
involved with one another, confronting
issues at an interpersonal level. Many
people at professional levels spend con-
siderable time sitting and passively lis-
tening to "authorities" and never be-
come truly involved. I earnestly hope
that we in counseling can learn to do a
little better than that. ∎

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A coming together

ALTHA WILLIAMS

San Diego Convention Coordinator

February 9-12

Several years ago I observed the gratification that a national convention brought to some individuals and groups as well as the tension and struggle it brought to others. During the past three years, social distance between individuals and groups seems to have increased.

With the growth in APGA convention attendance and the diversity of the attending membership, the barriers to good relationships seem more obvious. It appears that status lines are more clearly defined and that the amount of time individuals spend with their professional colleagues is contingent on whether the time spent is socially enhancing or professionally rewarding.

WHAT KINDS OF PROGRAMS?

Boller, having undertaken the task of identifying some of the major impediments to becoming deeply involved, calls on APGA members to accept the responsibility for communicating effectively and developing good interpersonal relationships with each other while redefining roles and relationships of divisions within the organizational structure.

In addition, Boller expresses dissatisfaction with the highly academic presentations. I feel that certain aspects of a convention format merit attention to investigation and exploration into research through papers, speakers, and reactors who are expert in the particular area under consideration. In these cases, formal presentations to large groups may

be necessary parts of the process for disseminating information and presenting hypotheses, theories, and conclusions. For example, I feel it is incumbent on the membership to present documented research that will enable the organization to take a position and make recommendations with regard to tests: their construction, their administration, their interpretation, and their use.

After the formal presentations, however, there should be appropriate space allocation, sufficient time, and an atmosphere conducive to both listeners and presenters for engaging in processes that provide individual opportunity for questioning, clarifying, interacting, and responding to the presentation.

There is also a need for making proposals or suggestions that will enable a person or group to take to their respective communities plans for modification or implementation of processes that are appropriate and significant for the community. In some cases, an evaluation of this communication process may result in the listener's becoming distressed or disenchanted with both the idea and the presentation to the extent that he disregards the total activity; however, he will at least not be mystified by the issues.

Boller has also referred to creative experiences within small groups as means of facilitating more interpersonal communication. Under some conditions, in certain situations, with some people, this creative experience may be achieved. Yet it may be a form of dehumanization for others who have not been included because they do not know anyone in this select group and who may justifiably feel that the group wishes to remain small in order to reduce the possibility of dissimilarity in thought, spirit, and action.

While discussion should continue with regard to program format, special workshops, and theme choices, there should also be a desire within the individuals or their respective groups to understand

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...s and their meaning, ideas and their ...tion, speakers and their intention. ...hermore, they should attempt to set ... hearts and minds to the task of ...ing to come together, having faith ...emselves and others while develop- ...eelings of genuine love and affection ...ne another.

SAN DIEGO PLANS

...entioneers who come to San Diego ...973 will have an opportunity to ...cipate in a forum designed to dis- ...er what the membership considers to ... significant elements in achieving ...sonal growth, attaining professional ...mpetence, and developing good rela- ...onships within the organizations. Fol- lowing the forum, provisions will be made for small group interaction so that members can engage in meaningful dia- logue and experiences that do not permit differences in job status, ethnic back- ground, or geographic location to polarize the group or reduce its effec- tiveness.

The San Diego Interest and Meals Coordinators believe that the traditional tours, consisting of impersonal visits to large, palatial homes, do little to estab- lish rapport among the local members and visiting conventioneers. They have therefore planned, as a major part of the program, small group visits to the homes of local members to encourage better interaction and communication.

Because delegates and visitors often become exasperated in their search for the location of a particular activity in the labyrinth of a huge hotel, the Con- vention Services Coordinator is arranging to have in the headquarters hotels indi-

viduals on duty 24 hours a day whose sole duty is to help conventioneers find locations easily with friendly assistance. Shuttle buses will be provided to assist members in traveling from their hotels to meetings or other functions. This added courtesy will allow conventioneers time to get to know each other while en route to designated downtown sites.

The San Diego Program Committee and Coordinators plan to solicit pro- grams from the Human Rights and In- dividual Opportunities Commission and to assist and support the Commission in its effort to encourage all members to talk to each other, work with one an- other, and participate together in pro- fessional and social endeavors that will enable each person to improve his level of communication with other members of the Association.

Perhaps the basic component in a com- ing together is contingent upon a multi- valued orientation that the Assistant Convention Coordinator and the Pub- licity/Public Relations Coordinator give the membership through their personal contact and publications. Their efforts can bring new meaning to the scene and its implication for APGA's internal and external relations. Also, issues that affect all members may come into focus.

Finally, the focus of the newly formed Community Convention Commission, comprised of San Diego citizens, will provide an added dimension for achiev- ing the goals of fostering indepth inter- personal communication and enabling a conventioneer to internalize skills, use knowledge, change behavior, and return to his community knowing himself bet- ter and understanding and accepting others more easily. ■

The team approach to conventions

MARLIN K. JACKOWAY

St. Louis Convention Coordinator

April 15-19

I have two reactions to Boller's article. First, I agree that conventions do not solve many problems that counselors would like them to solve. Second, I think that part of the problem lies within the conventioneer himself. I'll discuss the second point first.
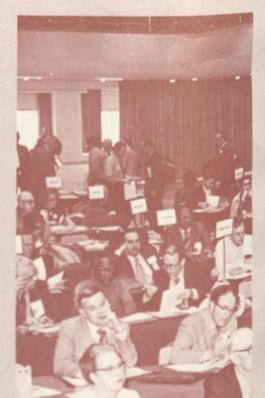
GETTING ORGANIZED

It has been my observation that counselors attend conventions primarily because the institution that sends them feels that their attendance will enhance their ability to function in their roles. Often the convention is the only continuing education that counselors experience, and many of them are not well prepared for it as students. They expect the convention to do the entire job for them, and this, as any student knows, is a mistake. The convention is a tool, providing a means for hearing and studying the latest efforts in the field—often five years ahead of their becoming public.

The most successful experience I had at an APGA convention was in New Orleans in 1970, and I do not feel that it was because that convention was necessarily superior to any other but rather because our school district brought a team of five counselors from our project. We organized ourselves so that we would be at each program that would be of interest to us, and seldom more than one of us attended any program. We approached the convention as a learning device and organized ourselves to gain as much knowledge as we could from it. If we found ourselves stuck in a program that we felt did not stand up to what we had hoped, we were free to move to another section that we had picked as an alternative. We regrouped at lunch and enjoyed the evenings together. We came away with an immense amount of information that we cataloged and filed, and we still use the materials generated by that convention.

The team approach is an effective use of a powerful learning instrument to gain the most from conventions. I would much rather go to the convention every third year with a team than send one person each year. If boards of education and sponsoring institutions see the results of this approach, I believe they would see its validity. We could then reduce the *number* of conventions we attend but increase our *periodical* attendance. This, of course, brings us to the regional concept, which may be our only answer, should the conventions

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increase in size by the attendance of teams rather than individuals.

There are many people who have reservations about the regional concept, but I am not one. I feel a great need for the involvement of more practitioners in our programs. Pencils and tape recorders are learning instruments that can be used to record lectures, communicate intellectually, or draw dirty pictures; in the same manner, conventions can be misused by those in attendance, no matter how good the offerings or how meaningful the concept.

ST. LOUIS PLANS

In considering Boller's contention that conventions do not solve all problems, our group in St. Louis could use Boller's article as a summary of some of our first meetings. The strong feeling for more involvement of participants in the programs forces a complex structure of sessions because of the small size of the audience at each session. Our Program Committee has accepted this problem and intends to encourage workshop sessions and solicit individuals for them who are recognized as having expertise and skills in this type of program. The regional concept gives more members an opportunity to present. It also offers dates that may allow more people to take advantage of the conventions without the restriction of geographic location. There is no question about the power of small programs that provide involvement, and our committee in St. Louis has been addressing itself to this very problem since the beginning of the year.

I believe that surprising St. Louis will be surprising in more ways than publicity items indicate. Our Program Committee is seeking new modes of communication, investigating multimedia resources as well as a strong involvement base program. We are seeking programs that cross division lines and will encourage interaction among members of different interest groups within the organization. The Program Committee is considering a comprehensive outreach program and an auxiliary program for wives and husbands in attendance. The plans that are moving along for the spouses may even make the convention more meaningful for them than for many of our members!

SUMMARY

I feel that Boller hits the mark in many ways, but I also feel that the convention concept may not be the guilty party. We must keep in mind the purposes of the convention and organize ourselves in the most meaningful way to cultivate new ideas and combat inertia in order to catapult us from our swivel chairs into an active posture for the next year. I believe that sponsoring institutions, on seeing visible evidence as a result of convention attendance instead of only hearing about the good time we had, will be only too happy to consider enlarging and encouraging participation in conventions of our organization. ■

Members must produce the change

LOUIS E. SHILLING

Atlanta Convention Coordinator
May 23-27

In the embryonic days of scientific research, six blind men—their names are long since lost to history, but we do know that they came from the Far East—followed an inductive approach to the study of the elephant. For centuries after, no one was sure whether the elephant was like a wall or a snake or a rope.

This same group also did a study of conventions. One, an auditory expert, said that a convention is "ballyhoo and bustle, which correlate rather well with noise." Another, a specialist in visual stimuli, reported large crowds in small rooms and small groups in large halls. A third, a culinary type, rhapsodized about steaks and lobsters and martinis. In recent years scientists have moved from the inductive to the deductive method of scientific research. A more recent report of blind research might say: "The exhibits were too crowded, the meals were no good, the talks were too long, there wasn't enough to do, and besides, I got caught in a snowstorm. Therefore the convention is a waste of time and money."

WHAT WE CAN'T AND CAN DO

It is true, as Boller states, that most conventions for most people are distant, expensive, time-consuming, and, all too often, unproductive. To be candid,

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there is probably not much that can be done to alleviate the first three of those problems. If a convention were nothing more than another faculty meeting, why hire a hall? A convention should be a coming together of people who do not come together every day. In high school one learns that distance=time×rate. A more worldly-wise view is that distance=time+money. And then there are so many inconvenient intangibles: Who can guarantee that only 100 people will attend the session in the room that holds only 100? Who can guarantee that it will not snow in Chicago in March nor rain in Atlanta in May? (I can guarantee that it will not snow in Atlanta in May!)

Now, what about that fourth objection to conventions—that they are often unproductive? Something *can* be done about that. The blame for this condition lies principally with the membership of APGA and only secondarily with convention and/or program coordinators. People seem to have two stereotyped notions of a convention: It is either a time for having fun—the kind you can't have at home—but accomplishing nothing, or a time for listening to learned papers presented by learned lecturers—which accomplishes nothing. I submit that, while both stereotypes have some basis in history, neither need be true of present or future conventions. It seems, however, that the convention planners have either resigned themselves to this situation or, if aware of its detrimental effects, have done little to encourage and less to produce change. On the other hand, the program coordinator merely coordinates the programs; he does not design them. The coordinators have some say about what programs are finally presented to the convention, but they can work only with those submitted by the membership. If the members of the Association want a more relevant, more involving, more professional, more personal experience, they must make it so; they must produce the change.

ATLANTA PLANS

The theme for this year's conventions is "Proactivity: The Now Imperative." Basically this means, "Don't wait for something to happen; *make* it happen *now*." In Atlanta we are making some changes in the convention format that we think will deal with some of the problems cited above. We have invited a dynamic person, whose "bag" is psychodrama with large groups, to present both the opening and closing sessions. Not only will he speak to the theme, but he will also bring the audience into it.

We plan to accept only those programs that provide for some form of audience participation. We are encouraging as many small group, workshop-type programs as possible. We are seeking "bull session" programs where, for example, working counselors get together to rap about their common concerns. In fact, we will assign a room at the major site as the "Bull Session Room," where those

who so desire can expose, and be exposed to, creative thinking at its incubation stage. We are doing this in the hope that special interest groups (VA hospital counselors, school psychologists, drug counselors, etc.) will use the opportunity to share their ideas and experiences with their colleagues. We believe that "how-to" programs and "cookbook" presentations have a lot to offer. We are also scheduling off-site programs in some of the many facilities in the Atlanta area in the hope that participants will become involved in an ongoing process *in situ*.

In short, we hope to make this a satisfying, productive, professional, personal, and interpersonal experience for as many as possible. Notice how many times I have said, "We hope to . . ." or "We are encouraging . . ." This is where you come in. I don't know how you would describe an elephant, but for me it is neither like a wall nor a snake nor a rope. ■

An experiential convention session

DALVA E. HEDLUND
HOWARD C. KRAMER

That vague feeling of dissatisfaction that often lingers while traveling home from a national convention has recently led to criticism of the traditional convention format. Lafferty (1972) has perhaps made the most poignant statement about that feeling in the poem "Atlantic City." Boller (1972) questioned whether conventioneering is really worth the expense, suggesting shorter, regional conventions as more efficient and economical. Jeffs (1972) suggested the use of videotape previews of program content, the immediate evaluation of programs, and the flexibility to repeat exceptionally well-received programs. Kelly (1972) urged the specification of behavioral objectives for convention programs, the use of behavioral contracts to assure commitment to post-convention actions, and much more extensive evaluation of program effectiveness.

In creating Program #497, "Workshop in Designing Experiential Learning," for the 1972 Chicago Convention, we attempted to remedy some of the problems we found in the traditional convention program format. To accomplish this we broadened the traditional objective of presenting a set of information—a cognitive or intellectual objective—to include affective objectives, skill

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or behavioral objectives, and process objectives. The topic of the workshop was how to design an experiential learning situation, and experiential learning, by our definition, included the types of objectives just outlined. The workshop, however, could as easily have dealt with almost any professional topic from freshman orientation to placement.

OBJECTIVES

Our workshop objectives included the presentation of a set of principles about designing experiential learning. The way in which these principles were presented, along with the workshop's other objectives, could make the workshop worthwhile to participants. First, the concern of participants about their jobs—their professional performance—needed to be related to learning activities in the workshop. Second, in order to personalize learning activities, a sense of community or belonging—a level of psychological security—had to be created. Third, participants were to be as actively involved in the learning process as possible. A related process objective was to make available other participants' experiences as a learning resource. Fourth, an opportunity to apply the designing principles was necessary in order to fully understand them and incorporate them as behavioral skills. And finally, evaluation was needed in the form of participants' reactions to the workshop and reports on what knowledge they actually gained about designing experiential learning.

DESIGN

The workshop was arranged in three phases: Phase One was community building; Phase Two was designing (the application of designing principles); Phase Three was sharing and evaluating.

The community building phase used a microlab design. Participants met and talked, sharing personal data to foster a

belonging and create a suppor-
work climate. Information gen-
during this period was used as a
for the formulation of work teams.
bers, in teams, discussed the types
oblems, goals, and target popula-
as they were concerned with in their
n work. The teams were then asked
use this data to specify the characteris-
cs of the hypothetical target group for
hich they were later to create an experi-
ntial learning design. At the end of
Phase One printed material relevant to
that phase was distributed to the partici-
pants and progress to date was discussed.

In Phase Two, participants in small
work teams were asked to use the in-
formation presented about designing to
create an experiential learning design
that would meet objectives specified by
work team members in Phase One. To
guide teams in proceeding on the de-
signing task, a set of questions was listed,
and the product—what we expected as
a design—was carefully defined. Com-
pleted designs were written up for pres-
entation.

During Phase Three, each team
reported on its design to other teams,
and all participants completed assess-
ment sheets concerning their reactions
to the workshop. At the completion of
the workshop, participants received a
short bibliography and a copy of the
workshop design.

EVALUATION

To assess the workshop, participants
were asked to report their own reactions,
estimate the reactions of others in their
work team, and respond to four open-
ended questions. The mean responses
by 25 of the 27 workshop participants to
five evaluative questions are shown in
Table 1 (p. 270). Each question had a re-
sponse scale of 1 to 7, with 4 being the
neutral or "can't say" category.

Generally, the workshop was evaluated
quite positively. Two response patterns

predominate. First, most participants
felt that other members of their work
teams responded more positively to the
workshop than they themselves did.
Second, many participants judged the
workshop to be more personally or pro-
fessionally relevant to them than to
fellow team members (question 5).

A summary of responses to the four
open-ended questions follows.

1. "Three strengths I demonstrated to-
day are": ways to organize (conceptual-
ize) much of my own experience in
groups; creative ideas about designing;
ability to be open; listening to others
and expressing my own views but with a
concern for group cohesiveness and
progress.

2. "Three skills I want to acquire or
improve are": personal-interpersonal
skills—to express myself more openly
and accurately, to listen to others more
effectively, to become more sensitive to
things happening in a group; group
leadership skills—wider repertoire of
techniques to promote experiential
learning, ways of keeping a group on the
task while helping everyone to belong,
more creativeness, evaluation techniques.

3. "The workshop staff": effective, help-
ful, warm, well prepared, work well
together, fun. (This question did not
elicit much feedback from participants.)

4. "Today I learned": how to organize
what I already know and apply it to an
experiential learning situation; that a
conceptual framework is really necessary
for group work; what is useful for teach-
ing my students about designing work-
shops; that participants (helpees) have to
be involved in a problem solving task;
that more sessions of APGA should be like
this; that you can get something out of
a workshop even if you come in late.

DISCUSSION

One thing we have discovered is that
there never seems to be sufficient time to
complete a session. Much of what had

been planned for the presentation and assessment of designs in the last portion of the workshop was either abbreviated or omitted. The workshop design had included a method of presenting and having participants systematically assess each design and discuss this assessment, but this sequence was only superficially treated in the waning minutes of the workshop.

Comments by participants appear to support the value of the time spent on the community building portion of the design. Participants in the "Frustrated Transients" group (each work team chose its own name), however, while reporting a different level of involvement and interaction from that reported by members of the remaining groups (ques-

tion 2) responded to the remaining questions much like members of the other groups. Is the community building phase of a program important to attaining program objectives? Might other types of activities be more appropriate? While we have no sound data to answer these and other questions about convention program format, we think they are appropriate questions to consider.

Responses about the value of this workshop as conveyed by participants was certainly positive and enthusiastic. Approximately four weeks after the program we asked participants to respond to a short mail survey. At the time of this writing, 14 had replied. In response to the question "Compared to most other professional workshops or conferences

TABLE 1

Mean Evaluation Scores by Design Teams

Question	Response				
	Frustrated Transients (5 in group)	Expand-ables (8 in group)	Gropers (5 in group)	Verbal Community (5 in group)	Total (25ª)
1. How was the workshop in reference to a sense of community?					
a. I felt (7 = very much included; 1 = very isolated)					
b. My group would say	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.4	5.8
	5.2	6.8	6.4	6.8	6.2
2. How was the involvement and interaction?					
a. Mine was (7 = very low; 1 = very high)					
b. My group would say	1.8	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.5
	4.0	1.1	1.6	2.2	2.0
3. To what extent did today's activities help you learn something about experiential designs?					
a. For me it was (7 = more than expected; 1 = less than expected)					
b. For my group it was	6.0	6.0	4.6	4.6	5.2
	5.6	6.1	5.0	5.2	5.5
4. How much sense did today's workshop make?					
a. For me (7 = none at all; 1 = a hell of a lot)					
b. My group would say	2.7	2.3	3.0	3.2	2.7
	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.4
5. What is the relevance or applicability of the design experience to your present work responsibilities?					
a. For me (7 = very high; 1 = very low)					
b. For my group	5.7	6.4	5.8	5.2	5.7
	5.5	6.1	5.4	5.6	5.5

ª Two respondents did not indicate their work group identification.

have attended, in this workshop I earned . . ." four said "about as much," one said "more," and one said "much more."

The second question on this followup survey asked participants to rank-order the learnings from the workshop. The two that ranked highest were: (a) learning creative ways and methods of designing programs and (b) learning skills for teaching various learning experiences to others. The second most frequently mentioned learnings had to do with gaining knowledge about self and relationships with others.

The third and last post-convention question was, "If another workshop were held the day prior to the convention, say 1:00 to 10:00 p.m., would you recommend attendance to a colleague?" Eleven persons said "yes," two replied "can't say," and one said, "No, because it is worth taking a day of the convention."

The responses of participants to the workshop certainly suggest to us that a similar program should be offered again. Due to the organization of convention schedules and the amount of time required for meeting the objectives set forth for this type of workshop, we suggest a format involving daily sessions of perhaps two hours each. This type of format would facilitate building a working community, presenting relevant cognitive material, and integrating learning from elsewhere in the convention.

The responses of participants also suggest that the workshop objectives outlined earlier in this article result in positive participant outcomes; participants saw the workshop as a meaningful learning experience. These objectives seem appropriate for many convention programs and may eliminate some of the problems of large group meetings described by Bradford and Corey (1970). Future programs should incorporate these types of objectives. Only with more careful attention to convention program design and evaluation will the development of program models proceed to meet the professional and personal needs that conventioneering was intended to serve. ■

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Behavior consultation in a barrio high school

HARRIS FARBER

G. ROY MAYER

Behavioral consultation with a counselor was used in this study to help an English teacher in an inner-city high school deal with his students' "lackadaisical" attitude toward the completion of assignments. Over a period of weeks, the behavioral approaches that were experimented with were found to facilitate the changes that the teacher had hoped for.

The problem of student unrest, once a phenomenon associated with the college campus, has become a common problem of big-city schools. Disenchantment, once characterized in inner-city schools by the relatively passive acts of truancy and dropping out, is now characterized by such overt acts as student walk-outs, vandalism, assaults on teachers, and fire-bombings. Hopefully the ultimate has been reached with the recent dynamiting of several schools in the heart of the East Los Angeles Mexican-American barrio, the area in which the present study was conducted.

There is certainly no one reason for the existence of the present conditions. Cries are heard about a multitude of inadequacies, including a curriculum irrelevant to the lives of inner-city youth, an overly permissive society, racism, incompetent teaching, a poor home environment, and outside agitators.

We have no panacea for alleviating the situation. However, as adherents of behavioral approaches to guidance and counseling, we were interested in investigating the effects of behavioral consulting as applied to a secondary school classroom (Mayer in press; Sulzer & Mayer 1972). We felt that inner-city youth were not receiving sufficient reward for attending school. Help in the form of federal aid, compensatory programs, or teaching machines is a start, but in the long run a major determinant of a student's happiness in school is whether or not he gains a feeling of worth through successful learning in the intimate environment of the classroom.

The effective use of the behavioral approach by secondary school counselors, particularly as consultants to teachers, has not been widely documented in the literature. Studies by Becker, Madsen, Arnold, and Thomas (1967), Hamblin, Buckholdt, Bushell, Ellis, and Ferritor (1969), Hillman (1969), Kennedy (1968), McClain and Boley (1968), Myrick (1970), Thoresen (1966), Toews (1969), and Whitley and Sulzer (1970) have shown that a counselor, using behavioral approaches, can help teachers become more effective in providing an environment for students that is more conducive to learning. Most of these studies, however, were not carried out by on-the-job

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counselors but by university or college personnel, using teachers and students for special studies. Also, the subjects were almost all on the elementary or preschool level. Further, each of the experimenters used only one or a few children as subjects.

It was with particular interest, then, that we noted the publication of a study in which a behavioral consultant from a local university was able to change the behavior of a large number of students in a secondary classroom (McAllister, Stachowiak, Baer & Conderman 1969). Using this work as a basis, we attempted in the present study to tie together the various deficiencies already mentioned, in effect asking the question: Can a school counselor who works in a secondary school located in a barrio effectively act as a behavioral consultant to a teacher who is having difficulties with a large number of students in a classroom?

THE PROBLEM

Knowing that a counselor was seeking a class for a study in behavior modification, an English teacher approached the counselor about the possibility of using one of his "average" 10th grade classes. The teacher's difficulties centered around what he called the "lackadaisical" attitude of the students toward the completion of assignments.

Observations by the counselor and discussions with the teacher identified some of the behaviors being demonstrated. Many of the students, instead of doing classwork, lounged around the room to socialize and listen to records. And many abused the unlimited hall pass policy and wandered aimlessly around the school.

PARTICIPANTS IN THE STUDY

The 10th grade English class used for this study was composed of 17 girls and 14 boys, 2 of whom were 11th and 12th grade boys taking the course for the second time. The ages ranged from 14 to 19, with a modal age of 15. The ethnic composition of the class closely resembled that of the school. There was one Chinese boy, two Negroes, and two Anglos. The rest of the class (11 boys and 15 girls) was Mexican-American. The students were not told that they were part of an experiment.

The teacher was a 32-year-old English instructor, in his 7th year at the school, with a background in social service among the disadvantaged. The counselor was in his 15th year at the school. He had begun as a social studies teacher but had been counseling for 10 years, the last 6 on a full-time basis. Both the teacher and the counselor came from a white, middle class background, as did most of the personnel at the school.

PROCEDURES

Once the problem had been observed by the counselor, he consulted with the teacher for seven consecutive 5- to 50-minute sessions during the teacher's conference periods. In these conferences they selected and agreed on the terminal goal, the criterion level, the baseline measure, the behavior change procedure to be used by the teacher, the data collection methods, and the phases of the project. During this consultation period the teacher rescinded the unlimited hall pass and record playing privileges and took a more traditional approach in teaching the class. The teacher was dissatisfied with the approach he had changed to, however, because its methods were not in line with his philosophy.

Terminal Goal, Criterion Level, and Baseline Measure

The terminal goal chosen was that students would be able to complete assignments, through individual study, as set forth by the teacher in assignment booklets. These assignments were of such a nature that students could choose, with the teacher's approval, their own topic

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and difficulty level to study and write about. The criterion level used to determine success was that 60 percent of the students would complete the number of assignments by each due date and according to the standards of the assignment book and the teacher. And in order to obtain a standard against which change could be measured without delaying the program of behavior change, assignment completion information that had already been recorded in the teacher's roll book was selected as the baseline measure.

Behavior Change Procedure

The plan that the teacher and the counselor worked out consisted chiefly of reinforcing those behaviors that would lead to the completion of assignments. The behaviors chosen were: (a) being on time to class, (b) starting to work, (c) reading, (d) writing in assignment books, (e) using the dictionary, (f) being active in group discussions, (g) taking special responsibilities within a group, (h) asking questions related to the work, (i) following directions explicitly, (j) turning in assignments, and (k) meeting due dates.

Although the teacher was to use every opportunity to reinforce desirable behaviors, there were also segments of the class period set aside specifically for this purpose. During the first minute of the period, the teacher was to give oral praise to the class and offer an inexpensive tangible reward such as a school decal, a used book, a pen, or a movie ticket (Farber 1971) to one student selected at random from those who had demonstrated a desirable behavior either the day before or immediately on entering the room. During two special reinforcement segments of each period (approximately five minutes each), the teacher was to move about the room, praising desirable behaviors as they occurred. The teacher was to ignore those students who did not demonstrate desirable behaviors. During the last few minutes of the period, while

the students were taking care of cleanup chores, the teacher was to reinforce desirable behaviors by reviewing and praising them.

The unlimited hall pass and record playing privileges also had to be earned. For example, in order for a student to receive an unlimited hall pass during a given week, he had to have met all due dates for assignments the previous week. Another contingency stipulated that 90 percent (later reduced to a more realistic 65 percent) of the class would have to meet due dates for assignments during any given week in order for record playing to be allowed the following week.

Discriminative stimuli (Sulzer & Mayer 1972) such as directions, prompts, and the use of models were also provided in order to help the students learn the conditions under which behavior would be reinforced. Written and oral instructions were provided to the class regarding how reinforcement could be obtained. The teacher, when publicly reinforcing a student's desirable behaviors with praise and tangible rewards in order to bring about desirable peer behaviors, would mention precisely why the student was being reinforced.

Other facilitators included a "thermometer" drawn on the board that showed the number of students who had completed a specific assignment as of that date. Also kept on the board were the names of students who had qualified for hall pass privileges.

Data Collection Methods

Data came from three main sources: cumulative records, the teacher's roll book, and direct observations in the classroom. The counselor made direct observations of reading, writing in assignment books, and the teacher's response to these behaviors (reinforcement or nonreinforcement) to check that the teacher was using the behavioral approach agreed on. Teacher reinforcement took the form

of attention or approval as described previously. Behavioral definitions were agreed on for the target behaviors of reading and writing in assignment books. Reading was defined as looking at printed materials in the classroom or library that were related to assignments, and writing in assignment books was defined as responding in written form to assignments as set forth by the teacher through printed material or oral instructions.

The data was collected during the special five-minute reinforcement segments of the class periods. Thus, data was collected twice during each class period at least three times a week on an observational form devised by McAllister and others (1969). Once the treatment began, this observational procedure was continued throughout each phase of the study.

If any student in the class demonstrated the desired behavior during a given 30-second interval, it was recorded. The teacher's reinforcement or nonreinforcement of a target behavior during the same interval was also recorded. A check mark in the appropriate block on the observational form indicated the occurrence of a target behavior by a student or the teacher's reinforcement of a target behavior.

These observational periods also provided the counselor with examples of appropriate teacher behavior that the counselor would reinforce with the teacher the same day. Discussion of the data collected also seemed to reinforce the teacher's efforts at sustaining the system of reinforcement.

To check on the reliability of the observational data, the cooperation of another school counselor was obtained. He was familiarized with the behavioral definitions and possible teacher reinforcement responses. Both counselors observed during the five-minute reinforcement segments on at least two days during each phase of the study.

Phases of the Project

The study was basically of a reversal design (Sulzer & Mayer 1972; Whitley & Sulzer 1970) that consisted of six phases, described as follows.

Baseline. This phase, lasting 23 school days, had taken place before the counselor and teacher agreed to work together. The productivity level of the class had been only 18 percent, and the class had been spending much time in activities unrelated to assigned tasks.

Interim. This was the consultation phase, which lasted seven school days. During this phase the teacher took a more traditional approach with the class. The unlimited hall pass and record playing privileges were suspended. The teacher held "how to do it" sessions with tables lined up facing him and was able to achieve a 48 percent level of productivity.

Treatment 1. This was a 17-day phase in which the behavior change procedures previously described were put into effect.

Reversal. This was a five-day phase. The purpose of instituting the reversal was to demonstrate that there was a functional relationship between the approach used and the terminal goal behavior achieved. In essence, treatment was reversed: All contingent reinforcement for target behaviors was terminated. On the first day of the reversal phase the teacher told the class that he was pleased with the progress they had made during the previous 17 days and that from now on he was extending unlimited hall pass and record playing privileges to all students without regard to due dates of assignments. The "thermometer" and other things pertaining to the completion of assignments were erased from the board. The teacher abruptly stopped issuing tangible rewards and discontinued the special five-minute reinforcement segments of each class period. Additional instructions and prompts were omitted.

The teacher, of course, did not completely cut himself off from the students; he still operated as the teacher, but he had less interaction with the class. When they asked a question or wanted to turn in an assignment, they continued to receive his attention and suggestions for improving their work.' In other words, it was "business as usual" with the class. They still had their assignments and due dates, but they were receiving a minimum of reinforcement from the teacher.

Treatment II. During this 15-day phase, the procedure in Treatment I was reinstituted. On the first day of this phase the teacher told the students that they were again misusing the hall passes and not completing their assignments as well as they had been. He announced that he was going to reinstitute privileges on the contingent basis that had been in effect previously (i.e., during Treatment I).

Maintenance. At the beginning of this
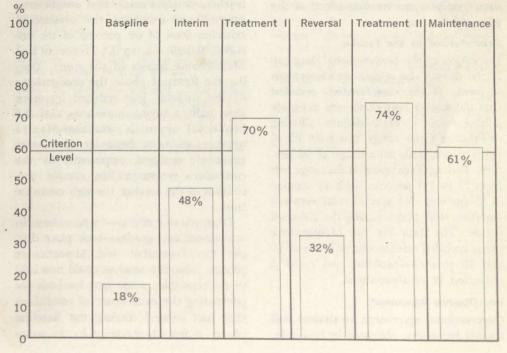
seven-day phase, unlike the beginning of the previous phases, the students were not told of changes in procedures. The purpose of this phase, implicit in its name, was to maintain the behaviors acquired during the earlier phases. The directions, cues (Carlson & Mayer 1971), and tangible and special social reinforcers (Sulzer & Mayer 1972) that had been used to effect the changes in student behavior were gradually removed.

The counselor explained to the teacher the general idea behind maintenance procedures. While the teacher was told to reduce his use of tangible and social rewards, as well as the directions and cues he was providing, he was allowed to proceed at his own speed.

RESULTS

The results of the study, as illustrated in Figure 1, indicate that the data reflected the typical characteristics of a reversal procedure, showing a low level

FIGURE 1

Average Percent of Assignments Completed

of productivity during the Baseline phase and a subsequent rise, fall, and rise of productivity level for the Treatment I, Reversal, and Treatment II phases, respectively.

The data indicate that the 60 percent criterion level was maintained for the Treatment I, Treatment II, and Maintenance phases. (Since there were no due dates for assignments during the Baseline phase, both on-time and overdue assignments were included in computing this percentage so that the data would be comparable.) In addition, the 60 percent criterion level was met for 3 consecutive assignments during Treatment I and for 10 consecutive assignments during the Treatment II/Maintenance phases. Percentages for individual assignments were computed by dividing the number of late and on-time assignments accepted by the total number of students enrolled on a due date.

Although not a stated goal of the study, there was also an improvement in report card marks and attendance during the Treatment and Maintenance phases (Farber 1971). Such findings indicate some possible positive side effects of the approach.

Reinforcement by the Teacher

Inspection of the observational data collected during the special reinforcement segments of the class periods revealed that the teacher had reinforced desirable behaviors to a high degree. During Treatment I the range was from 82 to 100 percent, with an average of 96 percent. During Treatment II the range was from 77 to 100 percent, with an average of 95 percent. No special reinforcement segments took place during the Reversal phase. The data for the Maintenance phase revealed reinforcement levels of 55 and 35 percent—probably too rapid a reduction in reinforcement.

Inter-Observer Agreement

Observational agreement on student and teacher behaviors, obtained by two inde-

pendent observers, averaged 90.7 percent over 10 different occasions throughout the study. This percentage was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the number of agreements plus the number of disagreements (Sulzer & Mayer 1972).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Several educators have argued for a greater use of behavioral approaches in educational settings (Kennedy 1968; Mayer in press; Sulzer & Mayer 1972; Zimmer 1967). This study was an applied response to their suggestions, for, as Whitley and Sulzer pointed out:

It is only logical to seek more effective consulting procedures and to do more applied research on the consulting role of the counselor, since it is so widely recommended as a legitimate professional responsibility [1970, p. 840].

Although the findings of this study are limited and may be interpreted in several ways, we believe they support the hypothesis that a secondary school counselor can function effectively as a behavioral consultant to an inner-city teacher. Student-completed assignments reached and exceeded the preselected criterion level of 60 percent of the enrolled students during the Treatment and Maintenance phases of the study. During the Reversal phase the productivity of the students was reduced by more than half—a strong indication that the behavioral approach was the effective agent. Classroom behavior, then, was effectively changed, apparently by the counselor's recommending specific procedures to the teacher through consultation.

Observed side effects—improvement in attendance and grades—took place during the Treatment and Maintenance phases. Also, the teacher could now add to his repertoire some new methods for preventing the occurrence of conditions that had existed during the Baseline phase. A few observations by the coun-

selor during the following semester indicated that the teacher continued to use the contingencies he had helped formulate. For example, he was still intermittently making special reinforcement turns about the classroom, and hall pass privileges continued to be contingent upon the completion of assignments.

Another advantage of the present study was the data it generated relating to observable and measurable behaviors. Data collection activities provided appropriate behavioral incidents for the counselor to use in verbally reinforcing the teacher. The counselor also was able to point to facts and figures that indicated just what it was he had accomplished. The approach, therefore, is consistent with the advent of accountability for school personnel, and it shows promise for helping teachers provide environments that are more conducive to learning. ■

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Black Youth as Peer Counselors

GERALD GREGORY JACKSON

Peer counseling has proven effective in various school settings. It has bettered classroom skills, improved grades, and raised levels of vocational and educational aspirations among disadvantaged high school students (Vriend 1969). It has assisted minority group students at a community college to adjust to their new milieu (Pyle & Snyder 1971). It has promoted psychological growth among high school students (Mosher & Sprinthall 1971). It has helped college students develop social skills and overcome loneliness (McCarthy & Michaud 1971).

My experiences confirm that benefits can be achieved through the use of the peer counseling approach, but they also give evidence that the approach is neither flawless nor necessarily easy to use. I would not like to see a decrease in the movement toward greater use of the approach because of some of its possible pitfalls, however, so I am providing evidence from my experiences of the benefits of the approach as a means of encouraging others to continue their exploration of it.

Three germane cases from different work settings will illustrate the benefits and the possible pitfalls of peer counseling. The first case illustration is based on my experience as a counselor at a female job corps center. It is intended

to show (a) the critical need for preplanning to ensure the overall success of the approach, (b) levels of successful use, and (c) ways the approach can be abused. The second illustration demonstrates how peer counseling can meet a number of demands of black, inner-city students who are not satisfied with merely "getting their heads together" and getting out of the ghetto but who at the same time want to assist their peers to do likewise. This case also dramatizes the need such students have to receive assistance from a counselor. The third illustration focuses on a conflict faced by a student who attempted to serve as a peer counselor and who encountered such resistance from her own counselor that she eventually dissociated herself from involvement in the final implementation of her idea. This case is presented not as an indictment of the counselor but as an example of how we may look through the eyes of a student.

PEER COUNSELING IN A JOB CORPS SETTING

The mistakes I made with Harriet now seem inexcusable to me in light of the experience I have gained since then, but at the time I made those mistakes I didn't know any better. I had read Wrenn's (1962) article on encapsulation and naïvely presumed that since I was not practicing what he preached, I was free to do as I pleased. I gave students the option to attend group meetings, adjusted my schedule so that we could meet at night, participated in extracurricular activities, and fought on the students' behalf when their rights were being infringed on. I even succeeded in getting a few students enrolled in a

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nearby college. In most instances, though, I took it upon myself to decide the type and extent of the students' involvement in counseling their peers. After all, wasn't I the counselor?

My initial failure to make correct use of peer counseling, then, stemmed from my myopic view of the life style fostered in the students by the institution, my lack of respect for their potential counseling skills, and my general resistance to a new idea.

Harriet too had her set of negative impressions; hers were about counselors, the job corps, society, and herself. She thought counseling "was a joke," and her behavior during the initial meetings of our group guidance sessions reflected her attitude. At our first meeting she wore sunglasses the entire time, effectively preventing me from observing her reactions. Also, she remained taciturn throughout this meeting. At our next meeting she parried my attempts to draw her into the discussion and seemed determined to make destructive comments only. She continued to attend the voluntary meetings, which were held in the evening.

Eventually, partly out of bewilderment and partly out of frustration with her "blocking" behavior, I asked to see her privately, to which she agreed. She remarked during the course of our private conversation that she was "checking me out." She confided that she was impressed by the freedom I gave the group members to decide if and when they wanted to attend, but, she added, unlike the rest of the members, she was not going to accept me solely on the basis of a good beginning. I in turn confided that experience had taught me that very little progress resulted when mandatory attendance was the only way of assuring continuation of a group's meeting.

Shortly thereafter, members of the vocational group (a vocational course of study elected by students) to which she belonged began making appoint-

ments to see me concerning their personal problems, and I was invited to visit their vocational area to observe them at work. This invitation was significant because the members of this particular group were noted for their insularity. Their invitation indicated their acceptance of me, and it was now up to me to accept them. I had to demonstrate not only that I was capable of dealing with the range of problems they presented but also that I was sincere enough to keep confidential what I learned. This responsibility was not easy in light of the fact that governmental fiat demanded the elimination of the rumor that we were running a homosexual haven and administrators responded by demanding that we report known homosexuals.

Harriet's acceptance of me had a number of benefits. New enrollees approached their initial interviews with me with a positive attitude, which facilitated the establishment of rapport. Also, instead of viewing me as a pawn, students began recognizing me as someone who could be useful as an arbiter in their disputes with teachers, administrators, and vocational instructors as well as in disputes among themselves. Moreover, because of my position with the students, many vocational and academic instructors used me as a resource for information regarding student needs.

As the number of students and their problems increased, I discovered that I did not have sufficient time to meet all their needs. It was out of this situation that Harriet's role as a peer counselor developed. She saved me a great deal of time by adding her interpretations of the general mood of students to mine, articulating student concerns, and suggesting students who could benefit from my assistance. Also, she was very often instrumental in diagnosing the problems of her peers and disseminating vocational, occupational, and administrative information.

The ironic drawback of the positive

effect this approach had on me and other students was the effect it had on Harriet. As her conversations with me became more intimate, she unexpectedly revealed the anxieties she was feeling as a result of carrying the weight of the personal problems of others. What had originally been a pleasure for her—helping others resolve their difficulties—had become a nightmare. Her position as a student representative in the student government further complicated matters, as her discretionary powers sometimes brought her into conflict with her peers. In effect, the multiple roles she had to play were too conflicting. But what seemed to disturb her most was her inability to resolve her own problems due to a lack of time and emotional energy.

Unfortunately, before time and understanding enabled me to alleviate the problem, Harriet swung into a prolonged mood of depression. Her interest in vocational training ebbed, as did her commitment to the student government. She eventually resigned from her position as student government representative and, apparently to ward off requests for assistance by either her peers or the staff, cursed a residential advisor and cultivated an attitude of aloofness. But she continued to be bombarded by her friends with requests for help and offers of assistance, and before long she returned to her position as a peer counselor.

The unfortunate side effect of what began as a positive situation might have been avoided if, after deciding that Harriet could be helpful to me as a peer counselor, I had considered the ramifications of this decision. For example, I did not explore adequately with her the problems she would face in assuming multiple roles and ways she might deal with these problems. On the whole, I was shortsightedly practical in my approach. I failed as a counselor and an educator in not realizing that the major objectives of using a student as a peer counselor should be determined by the benefits this approach would have first for the student and his peers and only then perhaps for the counselor.

My relationship with Harriet never returned to its former intimacy, through no fault of hers. I was afraid of repeating my mistake, felt guilty about what had happened, and lacked available references to guide me.

WORKING WITHIN THE SYSTEM: TWO CASES

Generally, the 10 percent of the black people in the United States who have succeeded, to a degree, in changing their economic position or, to a lesser degree, their social position, have invested so much of their energy toward this end that they have had little energy left to assist their brothers in doing the same. Not so with Maureen and Harold. The concern they demonstrated for their peers, while uncharacteristic of previous generations, is not atypical today, as illustrated by the report on a high school student in New York City who initiated a drug dialogue program at her former junior high school conducted by and for students (Jones 1970). Students like these are only dimly appreciated, and it is primarily for this reason that I wish to give an account of their trials and tribulations. Both Maureen and Harold chose to work within the systems of their respective schools; one elected to use the resources that already existed in the system, while the other attempted to adapt the system to fill a perceived void. As in Harriet's case, both experienced a degree of failure that could have been greatly minimized if the dimensions of peer counseling had been better appreciated by their counselor.

Through correspondence, I was relatively successful in assisting Harold to translate his desire to aid his peers into affirmative action. While learning of his attempts to help his peers, I came to believe fully that my ideas concerning peer counseling could and should be

used more extensively in public high schools. In Maureen's situation, I was of little direct help, but I was once again reminded, through her correspondence, just how important the attitude and disposition of the counselor is in determining the ultimate success of the approach.

Harold

As an initial step in the followup of a compensatory educational program, I sent a letter to Harold to find out if he had problems that he felt I could assist him in resolving. Out of more than 100 students, representing 39 states, he had impressed me as one of the few who would not need much support or guidance. His academic performance, extracurricular participation, and social skills were exemplary, and the correspondence I received from his school officials clearly demonstrated their genuine commitment to assist him in furthering his education. I was therefore surprised to read in his first letter that he wanted me to speak to his friends about going to college. He recognized his guidance department's interest in him, but he chided the counselors for being interested in only the "self-motivated" student. He also requested additional information on junior colleges. During the summer I had explained the merit of these institutions, exploring the significance of them for students of ability who are deficient in the requisite academic skills. Harold had noted the stigma attached to attending a junior college, and we had reached no closure on the subject. I felt at the time that his attitude toward junior colleges remained negative.

In my next letter to Harold I declined his invitation to visit his school for the purpose of discussing college attendance. I used distance and time as an excuse, but I was really concerned about the possibility that my visit would have negative repercussions on the students and the school personnel. I suggested to Harold that he consider such alternatives as getting his friends into an Upward Bound program, assembling a group of students with needs similar to his own who would provide a form of college guidance, and contacting and using support personnel from his community. I also sent him some comprehensive material on junior colleges.

His response to my suggestions was singular. First, he reported that he had decided to resolve the situation by himself. He rejected the idea of an Upward Bound program, stating that his friends had to work. He also reported that on his own he had looked into the possibility of getting businessmen from his community to speak to his friends and had encouraged his friends to join a club in which they would be exposed to many types of businessmen.

I wrote Harold a letter that was supportive of his efforts, and he replied:

I have finally found the time to reply to your letter. I feel that one of the best things that I have ever done was attending an interview conducted by a junior college. In this interview I found out some very important things about the advantages that a junior college has for the student who has a critical lacking in certain skills and would like to build them up before entering college. I had also asked a group of my friends to attend with me to see for themselves what the junior colleges were putting down.

Maureen

In contrast with Harold, Maureen neither operated apart from school personnel nor needed my advice in starting her organization. I learned of its existence, purpose, and scope during the same period in which my ideas about the potential use of paraprofessionals in public high schools were coalescing. In responding to her initial letter, therefore, I asked her to give me as much general information as possible about her organization and its college guidance services. In her next letter she attached a copy of a write-up of student grievances, and it became apparent as I read the indictment of counselors and their

practices that the concerns expressed by these students partly defined her organization. Students made the following criticisms and suggestions:

Counselors are not adequate. Examples: (a) Counselors do not relate to students; (b) Counselors always have time for upper crest (top 10 percent) students, they rarely have time for problemed students, and they never have time for the average student; (c) Students receive a run-around when they finally see their counselors; (d) After one has gone through the educational system and he goes to his counselor for college aid, the counselor tries to disenchant him from going to the college or university of his choice. Example: By telling him that he is not college material or that he does not have the requirements to gain college admission. Solution: We feel counselors should be more informed and understanding to individual students they are to counsel. More counselors should be provided. Counselors should be more open-minded, down-to-earth, and truthful.

Once again I wrote to Maureen requesting information on her organization; this time, however, I specifically asked for a description of the responsibilities of the organization's members and a discussion of the problems she had encountered in organizing the group, making it functional, and gaining assistance from her guidance department. Maureen reported that she had taken her idea to the guidance department "in hope of further assistance from the administration, and to make the committee legal and have a strong backbone." She said the guidance personnel had stipulated that they would recognize the committee if she could get it organized and active within 30 days. On this promise from them, Maureen sought 10 "hard-working and knowledgeable seniors who would devote their time (after school) to make a booming start with the committee." The functions of these students included (a) conducting personal interviews, (b) reviewing college applications to make sure they were properly filled out, and (c) corresponding with college students to find out what problems they were experiencing so that high

school students could be better informed about what to prepare for and expect.

In response to my question concerning any formidable resistance Maureen received in implementing her idea, she wrote:

Soon the [name of organization] began to enlarge, so the school assigned Mrs. [head counselor] to take over the leadership of the committee. I thought I would die because she was or is 65 years old, baggy jaws, white, and made conservative decisions about what the committee should do. She was sick four days out of the week, and I was sick at least one from working with her. So finally my committee was beginning to die, so I became frustrated and thought of closing down the whole idea. But I knew that wouldn't help the future seniors or the present seniors who needed help so desperately. So I took the group into my hands and wrote a standard constitution of the duties of the committee. It's been hard work, but I managed to keep the committee going and maintain a 3.3 average. I did make the Principal's Honor Roll (big deal).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The pitfalls I have noted in these case illustrations were not due to intrinsic faults in the approach but rather to the failure of the counselor to perceive adequately the demands of the approach. One such demand is that the peer counselor receive some prior training. Another is that the peer counselor receive supervision. Based on these experiences, I offer the following recommendations to counselors who are considering the use of the peer counseling approach.

First, decide on your rationale for using peer counseling. If you proceed on the basis of frustration and expediency, as I did, you may end up with a student who has experienced serious setbacks in growth. Keep in mind that the peer counselor is still a student, a person who has emotional needs and anxieties similar to those whom he is counseling. Remember that, unlike a "real" paraprofessional, he cannot leave the school setting and experience a social life and a pattern of relationships that exclude the people he is charged with assisting.

Second, come to grips with the way you perceive the role of the student—in relation to you and other people and conditions in the school. It is easy to envision an agreeable student who is going to channel his or her energies solely toward students and other officials, but you too may be asked to explain your function and affirm your worth, especially as the student's knowledge of guidance and counseling grows. You should therefore take care to create a framework for establishing and implementing the roles and responsibilities of the parties involved.

Third, establish a system for evaluating the performance of the student, both as a counselor and as a student. Try to assess the impact of the program on other students, the school, and the community. If possible, have a co-worker add his assessment to yours so you can get another opinion.

In short, decide on your objectives in using students as peer counselors, become totally involved in the process and content of the approach, reserve some time to reflect on the experience, and have someone in addition to yourself evaluate what has occurred. ■

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Counselor, Evaluate Thyself!

ELLIOTT MOZÉE

Accountability. PPBS. Behavioral objectives. Systems analysis. These concepts elicit tears of joy in some educational eyeballs and bring tears of outrage to others. The new ideology inherent in these concepts is finding its way into the counseling literature, with its application to counseling programs an incipient reality. Whether this new ideology is merely old wine in new bottles, a pedagogic fad, or a truly new and substantive approach to counseling is not to be belabored here. (It is a topic well worth the time and energy spent in fair debate, but not in this brief space.) The concepts mentioned introduce this article because they will undoubtedly serve as the backdrop to the perennial and often perplexing problems of evaluation.

Counselors are evaluated in myriad ways by their administrators and their supervisors, their faculties and their counselees, their colleagues and their communities. All these evaluators are at least one step removed from the locus of their evaluation: the counselor himself.

Most of us would quickly and perhaps vehemently assert that we evaluate ourselves and our work constantly, but we

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should just as quickly admit that we do it subjectively, haphazardly, fragmentarily, and perhaps defensively. Self-evaluation sounds easy, even comfortable, but that it is actually a most difficult task is clearly expressed by Cohen (1971).

Ultimately, the most rewarding evaluation—although perhaps the most difficult—is evaluation of self. This assumes a degree of maturity and a concomitant need for objectivity that are difficult for all, and for some impossible, to attain [p. 59].

Figure 1 is a counselor self-evaluation scale that was designed for counselors at one community college to enable them to systematically review their profes-

sional interests and competencies. (Because there is a separate health counselor at this college, the scale omits two items that might otherwise be included: "Counseling physically handicapped students" and "Health problem counseling and referral.") The functions or tasks were ordered by using a table of random numbers. There were no attempts in the construction of this scale to make items parallel or equivalent. Any invidious comparisons are the psychological projections of the counselor making them. With N equal to 1, no specified reference group (a hypothetical one is possible, however), and no established normative

FIGURE 1
Counselor Self-Evaluation Scale

Every counselor should review annually his relationship with his profession in some systematic way. This self-evaluation scale is designed to help you with this process.

Thirty-one areas of possible counselor functioning are listed. Rate your level of *competence* in each area, and then rate how *interested* you are in employing that specialized skill or performing that particular task.

The spaces in the left-hand margin are for rank ordering those counseling and guidance functions that are *most important* to you. (Rank at least five, more if you wish.)

Lastly, and most importantly, synthesize your thinking into a cohesive statement that truly reflects your present place in the profession of counseling.

Rank	Function or Task	Level of Competence					Level of Interest				
		Low	Below Average	Average	High	Very High	Low	Below Average	Average	High	Very High
___	A. Counseling low ability students										
___	B. College committee assignments										
___	C. Interpreting standardized tests										
___	D. Liaison with instructional divisions										
___	E. Conducting inservice education										
___	F. Personal problem counseling										
___	G. Community relations										
___	H. Orienting freshmen										
___	I. Conducting research studies										
___	J. Career planning (vocational counseling)										
___	K. Counseling ethnic minority students										
___	L. Making referrals and followups										

___ M. Teaching regular classes											
N. Using counseling techniques											
___ 1. Analytic or depth											
___ 2. Behavioral modification											
___ 3. Client-centered											
___ 4. Directive (Ellis, Glasser, etc.)											
___ 5. Humanistic/existential											
___ 6. Your own eclectic brand											
___ O. Evaluating transcripts											
___ P. Individual testing (TAT, WAIS, etc.)											
___ Q. Group counseling											
___ R. Using statistics and computers											
___ S. Program planning											
___ T. Counseling poor people											
___ U. Liaison with four-year colleges											
___ V. Professional association work											
___ W. Training and supervising aides											
___ X. Writing recommendations											
___ Y. Group guidance											
___ Z. Liaison with local high schools											

SUMMARIZING STATEMENT:

data, each counselor can estimate his areas of interest and levels of competence and then privately examine the points of congruence and incongruence.

The counselor's ranking five or more of the tasks provides him with a means for weighting his answers or, in current parlance, establishing his priorities. The summarizing statement called for at the end of the scale permits a written synthesis of the analyzed material, which can often be more revealing and rewarding than consideration of the scale items individually.

After the counselor has completed the scale, he should ask himself three questions: Am I competently performing those tasks I believe to be most important? Am I actually doing what I am most interested in doing most of the time? Is my work milieu a supportive one? Negative responses to these questions should not necessarily be viewed as tantamount to personal tragedy. In fact, negative responses could very well be the catalytic agents for instigating action programs leading to personal and/or institutional improvement.

Affirmative answers to all three questions should be sufficient cause for equal measures of joy and complacency, for the counselor who answers them affirmatively is, phenomenologically speaking, living in the best of all possible counseling worlds. ∎

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Ethics in Counseling: Problem Situations by Harley D. Christiansen. University of Arizona Press, Box 3398, Tucson 85722. 1972. 260 pp. $5.95.

The popular "no problem," often a casual avoidance of coming to grips, is on a par with "going along," the unthinking man's filter of noxious stimuli. The counseling ecology suffers plenty of pollution, and guidance has problems galore. Toward cleaning up the counseling environment, Christiansen presents typical problems infused with ethical content. They include asocial acts of counselees; problems involving parents, the public, or school staff; confidentiality and sharing information; testing; psychiatric referral; professional roles and functions. Each problem is the focus of a "constructed conversation" involving four hypothetical counselors representing different points of view. The author also contributes a preface, introductions to the nine chapters, and a bibliography. An excellent companion to the December 1971 Special Issue of the P&G JOURNAL on "Ethical Practice: Preserving Human Dignity."

The Drug Abuse Controversy edited by Clinton C. Brown and Charles Savage. National Educational Consultants, 711 St. Paul Street, Baltimore 21202. 1971. 270 pp. $8.50.

Books on drugs tend to have a dime-a-dozen dimension; this one is different. It rises above descriptions of drugs, nitty-gritty glossaries, and diagnostic data. It deals with issues—medical, psychological, social, ethical, legal, political. And its controversies are still current, though "it is a record of the formal presentation of psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists, ministers, lawyers, and administrators in a symposium . . . held on October 16, 1970." Among the top-drawer talkers on drug abuse were Howard Becker, Sidney Cohen, Daniel Freedman, and Thomas Szasz; "other voices" in an appendix are 1969 papers by Richard Blum and Eva Blum. Savage's civilized Postlude adds his personal perspective to the perplexing problems probed, including apparent "addiction to legislation" and addiction to methadone maintenance, as well as to "a way of life such as Synanon." Some cynicism perhaps, but wholesome criticism.

The Practice of Managerial Psychology by Andrew J. DuBrin. Pergamon Press, Elmsford, New York 10523. 1972. 326 pp. $11.50. **Cases in Organizational and Administrative Behavior** by Robert E. C. Wegner and Leonard Sayles. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1972. 204 pp. $5.95.

P&G'ers have a double interest in the psychology and sociology of management, in the way organizations operate. Their clients are past, present, or prospective employees of organizations whose management milieu or administrative atmosphere means much in relation to job satisfaction and self-actualization. P&G'ers are similarly employees of such organizations. DuBrin's large book is "intended for those people who wish to learn about how psychological techniques are applied to improve managerial and organizational effectiveness." The application touches, often too lightly, topics such as evaluation, development, counseling, group approaches, conflict resolution, intervention programs, and managerial motivation—the chapter on this last topic opens with the unchallenging heading, "Motivation and Satisfaction Are Different." All the chapters end with rather thoughtful "thought" questions. Wegner and Sayles have sharper questions at the end of their 32 varied vignettes, "based on the re-

ports of actual participants" and representing a wide range of employee behavior at many skill levels in diverse settings. These anecdotes would meet supplementary needs of numerous courses concerning human relations in business and industry. A chart, though poorly printed, guides the user in selecting cases to illustrate such concepts as authority, change, group behavior, hierarchical and lateral relations, specialization, and supervision.

The World of Higher Education by Paul L. Dressel and Sally B. Pratt. Jossey-Bass, 615 Montgomery Street, San Francisco 94111. 1971. 238 pp. $8.75.

"An Annotated Guide to the Major Literature," this bibliography surveys seven broad areas: institutional research, governance or administration, students, faculty and staff, curriculum and instruction, research methodology, and other bibliographies and reference materials. Some of the sub-areas are especially fertile, yielding refreshing information regarding substantive writings. Vital issues and lively events are obviously available in the literature of higher learning, together with the mundane matters of what has been called "hired education." The authors assist further with a general introduction and introductions to the seven sections.

Your Career If You're Not Going to College by Sarah Splaver. Julian Messner, 1 West 39th Street, New York 10018. 1971. 224 pp. $4.79.

Doubly a professional, as guidance worker and as writer, the author gave proper emphasis in 1963 to noncollege careers. This updated edition of that book, still striving stylistically to stir youngsters, runs the risk of turning off the turned-on generation, for the author's style may abate instead of abet her aim. Chapter 2, on taking stock of oneself, is titled "Say 'How Do You Do'—to You." A chapter on various selling occupations is called "Sales Are Ringing." The book is not likely to register "no sale," however, because it offers a wealth of information as it takes the reader on "A Walk Through the Working World." Though it speaks of "semiskilled occupations," an invidious term now avoided by the U.S. Department of Labor, it covers such au courant careers as ecology technician and computer science technician. The solid matter far outweighs the light language.

Perspectives in Educational and Psychological Measurement edited by Glenn H. Bracht, Kenneth D. Hopkins, and Julian C. Stanley. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1972. 357 pp. $8.95 hardbound, $5.95 paperback.

Readings to supplement texts for measurement courses, these selections were assembled from a variety of sources, some not readily accessible to students. Beyond this service and the customary coverage of pertinent topics, the book brings together "perspectives" on controversial issues by noted figures in the measurement field, some themselves controversial. Arthur Jensen is represented by two articles, as is Henry Dyer; Robert Thorndike and Robert Ebel have three each. Other notables: our own Leo Goldman, Anne Anastasi, Lee Cronbach, Frederic Kuder, and Frank Womer. Issues include accountability, social consequences of testing, and even "Must all tests be valid?"

Book Reviews

Guidance Monograph Series. Series IV: Career Information and Guidance edited by Shelley C. Stone and Bruce Shertzer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1970. Paperback. Complete set $13.00.

Series IV of the *Guidance Monograph Series* should be in every counselor's personal library as well as in institutional libraries. It provides a sound rationale and an up-to-date summary of research and practice for those counseling and guidance programs that are attempting to be responsive to the current emphasis on career education. The monographs are unusual in that they are at the same time concise and comprehensive and deal adequately with both theory and practice.

Running through the series as a whole are three themes. First, an important aspect of total life development is one's vocational development, and there is increasing knowledge about its stages and determinants. Second, in our society the individual is faced with the necessity of solving career-relevant decisions at many points in life, and society has the responsibility of providing, through guidance services, appropriate help to the individual so that the decisions are appropriate ones. Third, career decisions are both cognitive and affective, and the individual faced with a given decision at a given time in his or her career development needs not only accurate and usable information but also help in the decision making process itself.

Although each of the monographs is designed as a self-sufficient exposition of the

assigned topic, the series as a whole appears to have a certain organization. I wish that the editors had included a statement of their rationale for the series. From my own reading of the monographs in a more or less haphazard order, I would recommend the following as a reading guide for the guidance practitioner or counselor trainee.

First, read *Decision-Making and Vocational Development* by Edwin L. Herr (1970, 82 pp., $1.80). It provides a substantive overview (almost in the *Annual Review of Psychology* style) of the main concepts and basic research in the field. For those readers impatient to get to the everyday problems of counseling and guidance, this volume could be skimmed and put aside for later use as a reference guide for more intensive study of a given topic.

Second, read *Theories of Occupational Choice and Vocational Development* by Joseph Zaccaria (1970, 88 pp., $1.80). It is a clearly written, concise presentation of the major theories on the topic, with implications for guidance practices in school settings. It covers anthropological, sociological, philosophical, economic, religious, and literary as well as the basic psychological theories, namely, trait and factor, need-drive, psychoanalytic, Roe's, Hoppock's, Ginzberg's, Holland's, Tiedeman's, and Super's. It is my favorite in the series.

Third, read *Psychological Influences and Vocational Development* by Donald G. Zytowski (1970, 99 pp., $1.80). Here is another example of an author's pulling together a tremendous body of material and presenting it concisely and clearly. Zytowski presents a number of tables that show the interrelationships of such sources as the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* Worker Trait Groups, Strong versus Kuder, value categories, Minnesota Multiphasic Inventory and occupations, etc. In general, this monograph summarizes what is known about the correlates of vocational development, such as abilities, interests, values, and personality characteristics, and also about the components of vocational development as a process. It is particularly helpful in evaluating the usefulness of the trait and factor theory of vocational choice and adjustment.

Fourth, read *Students' Vocational Choices* by Duane Brown (1970, 77 pp., $1.80). The author has surveyed the literature for studies

of career-relevant choices and has presented the findings in four chapters, each dealing with a life-stage period, namely, preadolescence, early adolescence, late adolescence, and adulthood. Each chapter includes a critique of the current status of available knowledge on that life-stage period. In addition, a final chapter identifies eight basic findings and their implications for practice. This thorough monograph reveals the unpleasant fact that we really know very little about choices in the preadolescent and adult stages and that the extension of the career education concept over the total life period will require considerable research during the next decade.

The remaining four volumes deal with the use of information in the vocational choice and career development process. *The Theory/Practice of Communicating Educational and Vocational Information* by Ann Martin (1971, 80 pp., $1.80) relates guidance to information processing and describes an information-learning model for guidance. The author shows how the changing nature of education will require new kinds of information about self, education, and work, and she clarifies the role of guidance in the total curriculum.

Occupational Information and Guidance by Daniel Sinick (1970, 82 pp., $1.60) and *College Information and Guidance* by Mary E. Barre (1970, 70 pp., $1.60) make a good pair, since each summarizes the basic kinds of information available and points out its relevance to career progress. Sinick considers the world of work from two approaches: first, what is relevant for vocational planning; and second, what is relevant for job placement. Occupational information is broadly considered as including training and exploratory work experiences as well as published information in the usual sense. Barre presents down-to-earth practical suggestions for the counselor of the college-bound student. Special attention is given to working with the disadvantaged to facilitate their further education. The five chapters deal concretely with the basic questions of selecting a college, applying for admission, passing admission tests, financing one's education, and identifying the characteristics that differentiate institutions.

I have several reasons for leaving until last *Innovations in the Use of Career Information*

by Joyce M. Chick (1970, 63 pp., $1.60). It not only is well written, but it provides a positive note to end on, for if guidance and counseling are to be more than routine, bureaucratic scheduling of students on the one hand or motherly hand-holding on the other, there will have to be major changes in guidance program staffing and procedure in order to provide the necessary help to clients faced with crucial decisions or adjustment problems in a rapidly changing, ever more complex world of education and work.

Chick's monograph is the best summary I know of recent developments in the use of new methods for presenting information and facilitating understanding. In three fact-packed chapters she describes three types of innovations based on the use of computer technology, simulation and gaming techniques, and other multimedia approaches. In each case she gives the basic rationale, the manner in which the system is used, and helpful comments on its use. A bibliography of 69 items, nearly all published between 1967 and 1969, enables the reader to explore further.

As is apparent, I am very enthusiastic about Series IV. With the pattern now set, these monographs, if revised on a regular schedule, will serve a unique role in keeping the worker in the field abreast of current developments.—*Albert S. Thompson, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.*

Adaptive Counseling in Schools by John W. M. Rothney. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972. 193 pp. $6.95.

Rothney has shown much courage in attempting to coin still another brand of counseling, *adaptive,* and to show how it is different from and better than existing approaches. The major distinguishing characteristics of the approach appear to be: the modification and development of strategies being guided by counselee needs rather than being selected from established approaches; the use of longitudinal case studies; concern for the broad objectives of the school; the primary emphasis on developmental problems of students; and the counselor's insistence on his "freedom to improvise as situations demand improvisation."

There is much in this book that can be helpful to the counselor or the counselor-to-

be. The school counselor is encouraged to be accountable for demonstrating his worth to his "publics," and he is brought to understand that accountability comes only through the unglamorous and laborious process of record keeping, data gathering, and alumni followup. The neophyte counselor is mercilessly disabused of his belief in existing or eventual counseling panaceas. The major strength of the book is perhaps the reaffirmation of the variability and uniqueness of the individual and the complexity of the human condition, givens that preclude a narrow-gauge counseling strategy.

Many counselor educators will take serious issue with the author's proscription of group counseling, his opposition to confidentiality, and his emphasis on the counselor's social responsibility, which may seem to be pro-establishment views. Rothney is strongly opposed to the school counselor's use of sensitivity or confrontation groups and believes such approaches belong in the realm of clinical psychology. He believes that all information about counseling should be shared, especially with parents, and that the concept of confidentiality has no place in adaptive and developmental counseling.

There are three major weaknesses in the book. First, emphasizing the counselor's adapting procedures and techniques to counselee and situational variables without providing a conceptual framework for such adaptation may give the atheoretical, trial-and-error counselor a seemingly respectable rationale for continuing to fly by the seat of his pants. Second, the definition of adaptive counseling, differing so slightly from conventional views of eclecticism, adds little substance to the literature and may contribute to further confusion in terminology. Third, and most critical, is the advocacy of a counseling approach and an evaluation strategy that together leave counseling the "black box" it has been for too many decades. Until counseling theorists and researchers commit their energies to the search for effective counselor behaviors (in terms of specified counselee outcomes), the practicing school counselor will have little other than his intuition to assist him in being adaptive.

The greatest value of this book lies in the verve with which the author takes on the sacred cows of the counseling movement. The book provides the current views of one whose

tireless research (Who but John Rothney has obtained 100 percent followup in longitudinal research?) and prolific writing have helped to shape school counseling practice for more than a generation. Advanced graduate students will find in this book a singularly scathing critique of client-centered and behavioral counseling in particular and of counseling orthodoxy in general, and Rothney's many colleagues and former students will appreciate this spirited summary statement of his views on counseling in the schools.—*James L. Lister, University of Florida, Gainesville.*

Guidance and Counseling in Schools by Patrick M. Hughes. Oxford, England: Pergamon Press, Inc., 1971. 232 pp. $11.50.

This is an introductory book written for a British audience. It is not a how-to-do-it treatise but a review of some of the major social and educational themes in Great Britain that relate to the development of school counseling.

Counselors interested in international and comparative education are likely to be interested in the book. School counseling has been developing in England over the past six years, and it has some striking comparisons with the history of school counseling in America.

The book focuses on the need for vocational guidance brought about by changing labor and economic conditions. The educational parallels include concerns about testing, evaluation, selection, and therapeutic child guidance techniques. American counselors will find most of these topics similar to issues that have emerged in the United States over the past six decades. Some problems, such as selection for secondary schools, are not of significance for Americans but have deep significance for the positions Hughes is advocating.

The author sees school counseling as a response to various social needs. The themes he has selected, therefore, provide support for his arguments. He is not neutral. The issues have sides, and Hughes does not hesitate to take critical stances. His stances are on the side of student needs, his desire being to do away with stereotyping and pigeon-

holing. He wants students to be more aware of themselves and their potential future. He projects schools that are receptive to a process in which students can have more opportunity to decide for themselves what they can do and how they can do it. He views counseling as a liberating force in education.

The book is strongest in its wide selection of topics, but this is also its limitation. The far-ranging number of issues precludes clearer and more thorough analysis of each issue. The connection between the problems of society and the response in terms of school counseling is ambiguous at best. Specific programs and projections are not to be found.

It is clear from a careful reading of this book that certain problems of evolving guidance programs in England—namely, diversity of theories, concepts, and structures—unfortunately appear to be following the same patterns as those developed in the United States. The experience of the fluctuations, disparities, and incongruities on the American scene would hopefully have helped our British colleagues to avoid some of the pitfalls into which we have fallen. History may indeed be a very poor model for the future.

Nonetheless, those interested in the professional field of guidance and counseling, as well as practitioners who would like to have some sense of what is happening in another major country, could read this book with profit. It will give them an overview of and an exposure to names, ideas, history, and some philosophy that they will find at least instructive, even if not terribly comprehensive.—*Gilbert D. Moore, SUNY at Buffalo.*

A Constant Variable by Arthur M. Cohen and others. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971. 228 pp. $7.75.

This review assumes that PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL readers are professional-educators. The hyphen calls attention to a contrived dichotomy. On one hand we are absorbed by our professional speciality—vocational counseling, personnel selection, etc. On the other hand we pursue our profession in the broad areas of a general education.

The generalist should enjoy and appreciate *A Constant Variable.* Almost from page 1 he will recognize that Cohen has identified the controversial issues in the community college

movement and that his team of experienced and sagacious associates has critically distilled the most recent research available at ERIC and beyond. They have done for us precisely what we find neither time nor resources to do for ourselves.

The features that please the generalist, however, may be a source of disappointment to the specialist. Several sections deal with personnel and guidance issues; they are brief and thin. To illustrate, a subsection of chapter 6 is titled "Counseling and Personnel Services." Topics dealt with in this section include group guidance, personnel counseling, use of paraprofessionals, counseling methodology, women's status, paper-and-pencil tests, admissions and recruiting, and financial aid and a definition of criteria for it. At least 20 research reports are mentioned, usually two or three for each topic. All this in five pages is overdistilled for most specialists.

The final chapter has a format different from the survey-of-literature-plus structure. Conflicts between unstated social functions of the community colleges and the truly educative obligations are examined. Should the colleges function as protracted admissions screens? Are they primarily custodial to keep young people off the streets? Do they enhance inequality? This chapter should satisfy both the generalist and the specialist.

The blurb on the front flap claims that the authors "distill the research applicable to a specific facet of the community college" and add their own insights based on broad experience. These seem to be very accurate and valid claims. Statements in the preface describe the book as an "analytical review." This left a credibility gap with me. Perhaps my expectations were distorted by recollections of *Dateline '79,* Cohen's earlier analytical book, and the fact that I had just finished Milner's *The Illusion of Equality,* which provides much more in terms of systematic analysis.—*Lester G. Brailey, City University of New York.*

Emerging Students . . . and the New Career Thrust in Higher Education. Iowa City: American College Testing Program, 1972. 93 pp. $2.00.

An impressive list of national authorities was invited to present papers at a conference sponsored by the American College Testing Program on the role of the "disadvantaged,

culturally deprived, or ill or marginally prepared" student in higher education. This book is the publication of those papers. As might have been predicted, the overall quality of the papers is excellent. Particularly noteworthy are those by Ernest Boyer (on the attributes of students of tomorrow), Clark Kerr (on changes that may be anticipated in higher education), C. D. Leatherman (on education in the military services), Norman Gysbers (on high school career guidance), and William Goddard (on private career schools).

The main trouble with this approach, of course, is that the credentials of most senior leaders in American higher education can be challenged when these leaders begin to talk about the needs and interests of emerging students. The papers reflect their lack of firsthand experience; the one exception is the excellent paper by Johnny Ruth Clarke. Furthermore, the book contains no real input from students.

The papers make numerous general references about the need for more career counseling at the college level. Less evidence is presented that college students themselves are demanding this assistance or that it really has helped students.

Reference is also made to the importance of using career-related curriculums. This means specialization. But it is not clear how the college can help identify areas in which a demand will exist for graduates. None of the papers focuses on the serious implications of a possible surplus of college graduates or the tendency of many modern-day graduates to seek out jobs that do not require a college education.

In all fairness, these are criticisms easily raised by nasty reviewers. The questions left unanswered by the papers are difficult to answer, to be sure, but it would have been a more useful book if there had been some attempt to answer them.

On balance, the book is filled with some well-written reports. Most of the speakers strayed far from the conference theme, probably because they preferred to talk about what they knew best. The publication is well edited, and the result is a highly readable product. But I looked for more specific information on emerging students than I found.—*Robert Calvert, Jr., Garrett Park, Maryland.*

Handbook of Cooperative Education edited by Asa S. Knowles. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971. 386 pp. $12.50.

College costs continue to rise, and cooperative education—the combination of alternating periods of classroom instruction and off-campus paid work experience—is an exceptionally good means of meeting these rising costs. Also, off-campus employment in the student's major field of study adds to the relevance of his on-campus studies.

In this comprehensive volume, 21 authorities in the field of cooperative education contribute their expertise on varied aspects of this subject. Of greatest value to counselors and college advisors is the section devoted to the description of the many different programs that exist. The contributors to this section clearly describe the varied two-year college, baccalaureate, graduate, and industry-sponsored programs. The descriptions of the systems of cooperative education in Canada and England should cause our college administrators and student personnel workers to consider possible modifications in the programs in our country.

Much is being said today about affording

greater educational and vocational opportunities to women and minority group members. Cooperative education programs put the words into action and offer concrete means by which women and minority students can obtain advanced training and enter the fields of their choice. The relevancy of these programs to those students is competently presented.

The appendix contains a good deal of helpful information, particularly the lists of colleges and universities offering cooperative education programs and the fields of study they offer.

Students, parents, counselors, advisors, student personnel administrators, employers, and educators should find much of value in this very informative and well-assembled volume. You may not need to read the entire book; read the sections pertinent to your specific interests and work situations. And, teachers and counselors, be sure to have a copy on your office bookshelf so that your students and counselees also may read the chapters relevant to their needs.—*Sarah Splaver, Bronx, New York.*

Career Development in the Elementary School by Robert L. Gibson. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972. 81 pp. $1.95 paperback.

This book is a concise statement of current theory and practice, designed to be "utilized as either supporting information for general education courses, or as basic material for specialized vocational curricula."

The three things I like best in it are: (a) an excellent letter to parents inviting their cooperation when their children are asked to interview them about their occupations; (b) the account of a project in which a second grade class, with the permission of the local postmaster, ran "a real second class post office"; and (c) the recommendation that pupils, parents, and faculty all participate in evaluating the career guidance program.

As an ex-railroad worker, I am least enthusiastic about the suggestion that singing "I've been working on the railroad . . . just to pass the time away" might contribute something desirable to career development.

The person who has read several other books on the same subject will find little that is new in this one. But the person who has

read little about the topic and wants a brief introduction to it will find this a good sample of what awaits him if he chooses to read more.

Not explicitly, but unavoidably and truthfully, this book says that career development in the elementary school is an area of education in which we have a lot of noble objectives, a few interesting theories, a variety of activities that will keep the children out of mischief, and little objective evidence that we have yet accomplished anything.

I say this not in criticism of the author or of the profession, but as a simple warning to the reader that this is an area that none of us yet knows very much about. It is itself still in pre-kindergarten, trying to establish and implement its own self-concept and very much in need of John Krumboltz to help it state its objectives in such terms that it—and we—can know when they have been achieved.—*Robert Hoppock, Emeritus Professor, New York University.*

Psychology and the Process of Schooling in the Next Decade: Alternative Conceptions edited by Maynard C. Reynolds. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Department of Audio-Visual Extension, 1972. 256 pp. $3.50.

This book reports the proceedings of a 1970 conference sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education on psychology and its role in education. The conference was created to accomplish several goals, but its primary concerns were to examine the contributions of psychology to education and to develop some "creative propositions" for education based on advanced psychological knowledge.

The list of those who contributed papers is impressive: Lawrence Kohlberg, Carl Backman, Ogden Lindsley, Karl Pribram, Don Blocher, Seymour Sarason, Caleb Gattegno, Michael Scriven, and Louis Smith. The book also includes contributions of several other noted educators who participated in the discussions following the presentations. For the most part, the presentations emanated from developmental stage theory, Gestalt, behavioral, and social psychology concepts.

My first impression of the book was negative. Not only did I find myself in disagreement with the propositions presented, but, more important, I thought the material was no different from that which counselors and teachers have all too often been exposed to

NEW IN COUNSELING AND EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL THERAPY MATERIALS FROM THE ASHLOCK LEARNING CENTER *by* Patrick Ashlock, *The Ashlock Learning Center, Chicago, and* Sister Marie Grant, *Co-Administrator of the Dominican Education Service, River Forest, Illinois. Foreword by* Beth Stephens. '72, 440 pp. (5 3/4 x 8 3/4), 5 il., 4 tables, With accompanying, extensive test-related teaching materials. Book price: $15.75; Kit price: $125.00; Both $135.00

LEARNING DISABILITIES HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS. Some Educational Disabilities Are Listed with Definitions, Manifestations, and Remediations Explained with a Survey of Some Teaching Materials Commercially Produced and Available in Stores and Instructional Material Centers *by* Robert B. Blackwell *and* Robert R. Joynt, *both of Bowling Green State Univ., Ohio.* '72, 208 pp., $9.75

ABC PHONICS AND FACES *by* James Neal Blake, *Univ. of Louisville. Illustrated by* Charlotte A. Flynn. '72, 84 pp. (8 1/2 x 11), 39 il., $5.00 paper

CONTEMPORARY FIELD WORK PRACTICES IN REHABILITATION *by* John G. Cull *and* Craig R. Colvin, *both of Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville.* '72, 344 pp., 2 il., $16.75

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION: Profession and Process *edited by* John G. Cull *and* Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond. (25 Contributors)* '72, 576 pp., 2 il., 1 table, $18.50

THE THERAPY OF POETRY *by* Molly Harrower, *Univ. of Florida, Gainesville.* '72, 128 pp., $4.75

PERSPECTIVE AND CHALLENGE IN COLLEGE PERSONNEL WORK *by* James F. Penney, *Boston Univ.* '72, 108 pp., $6.50

PRESCRIPTIONS FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING AND ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS *by* Ralph F. Blanco, *Temple Univ., Philadelphia.* '72, 320 pp., $9.25

LEARNING DISABILITIES: A Book of Readings *compiled and edited by* Larry A. Faas, *Arizona State Univ., Tempe. (25 Contributors)* '72, 272 pp., 15 il., 6 tables, $10.75

DRUG ABUSE: Current Concepts and Research *compiled and edited by* Wolfram Keup, *State Univ. of New York Downstate Medical Center, Brooklyn. (70 Contributors)* '72, 496 pp., 20 il., 93 tables, $19.50

SUCCESS OR FAILURE BEGINS IN THE EARLY SCHOOL YEARS *by* Mary Lu Kost. *Foreword by* Robert E. Valett. '72, 500 pp., 44 il., cloth $21.00, paper $14.75

POSITIVE DISCIPLINE AND CLASSROOM INTERACTION: A Part of the Teaching-Learning Process *by* Hermine H. Marshall, *Univ. of California, Berkeley.* '72, 144 pp., 14 il., 5 tables, $6.00 paper

COUNSELING PARENTS OF THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILD *compiled and edited by* Robert L. Noland. *Univ. of Dayton, Ohio. (45 Contributors)* '72, 452 pp., 7 il., $11.50

THE ADOLESCENT GAP: Research Findings on Drug Using and Non-Drug Using Teens *by* Edward M. Scott, *Univ. of Oregon Medical School, Portland. Foreword by* Rev. Theodore M. Hesburgh. *A Chapter by* Chuck Paulus. '72, 160 pp., 1 il., $6.95

FUNDAMENTALS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT *by* Herman R. Tiedeman, *Illinois State Univ., Normal.* '72, 144 pp., 16 il., 28 tables, $11.75

in the past: a lot of sophisticated philosophical ideas that have little or no relevance for training programs or for what we do as counselors and educators. But the book in fact is not without value for the practicing counselor. It should cause him to question some of the counseling practices presently used in the schools and help him gain a better understanding of his own view of what education is all about and the role, if any, that psychology can play in the process. Perhaps, as one author pointed out, psychology can best be applied in the schools by its being used to get us out of the mess it got us into—the testing, measuring, and classifying of students, which do more to validate our own hypotheses than to promote learning.—*Ray E. Hosford, University of California, Santa Barbara.*

Reinforcing Productive Classroom Behavior by Irwin G. Sarason, Edward M. Glasser, and George A. Fargo. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1972. 43 pp. $2.95.

This brief book is described as a teacher's guide to behavior modification and, as such, is one of many to appear on the market recently. Rather than a guide, however, the book should more appropriately be considered an introduction to behavior modification for teachers and counselors unfamiliar with the subject. In 43 pages the authors attempt to present the origins, principles, and applications of behavior modification, along with case studies to illustrate the process, a glossary, and an annotated bibliography.

The book is appropriate for teachers in elementary schools and for counselors to use in the inservice training of teachers. While lengthy presentations of behavior modification procedures, highly supported by research citations, might only discourage teachers from seeking inservice training, this book is appealing in its brevity and its easily understandable style.

The ethical uses of behavior modification are discussed, and the method is presented as one that will bring about the greatest development of the individual and is considered to be personal and individual rather than impersonal and mechanistic.—*Arthur M. Horne, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

Implementing Behavioral Programs for Schools and Clinics edited by F. W. Clark, D. R. Evans, and L. A. Hamerlynck. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press Company, 1972. 201 pp. $4.00.

The seven papers comprising this monograph represent the proceedings of the Third Annual Banff International Conference on Behavior Modification, held in Banff, Alberta, Canada.

Part one consists of four papers dealing with the preparation of consultants for clinical settings. Those familiar with the writings of Thoresen and Krumboltz will find little new in Thoresen's paper on training behavioral counselors. Those less knowledgeable should find the first part of Thoresen's paper an interesting and informative overview of the nature of behavioral counseling.

Although primarily directed to school psychologists, school counselors interested in developing skills they will need as consultants to teachers should find worthwhile Hall's and Copeland's discussion of the responsive teaching model as well as Patterson's, Cobb's, and Ray's treatment of intervention procedures for the aggressive child. Probably the best features of the entire monograph are Hall's and Copeland's cases illustrating the application of behavioral techniques.

Whenever editors attempt to compile individual contributions into a single work, they risk sacrificing continuity. Such is the case with this monograph. Except for those papers devoted to behavior modification in the classroom, this reviewer doubts that P&G readers, including ardent disciples of behavioral techniques, will find the contents of this monograph to be of much appeal.— *John C. Jessell, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

A New Learning Environment by Harold L. Cohen and James Filipczak. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971. 192 pp. $8.75.

This book describes the effects of a year-long learning-theory-based treatment program on the academic development of 41 juvenile offenders in a residential correctional facility. The first half of the text explains the theoretical foundation and the actual operation of the program, while the remainder presents the results and followup of the study.

In the treatment, the institutional environment was planned so that teachers and educational materials were maximally available for student use. In conjunction with this, students were rewarded, through a token economic system, for successful completion of academic tasks. These tokens (points) could be used to purchase a variety of privileges, such as private rooms or special foods. By the end of the treatment, the average gain per student was about two academic grade levels and 13 IQ points.

Counselors concerned about the academic growth of juvenile offenders have good reason to inspect this book. Those in residential settings will find particularly interesting the authors' discussions of such issues as the involvement of correctional officers in the project and the staff's perspective about student sexual behaviors. In addition, counselors in a variety of special education and rehabilitation programs will find this book of interest, since the treatment method itself is described with enough specificity so that it could be incorporated as usable material in a variety of settings.

The only real limitation of the book grows out of the study design itself. For example, the treatment group had open membership; thus, students came and went throughout the project, and this created the need to compare subgroups of students. Moreover, followup is limited, since some of the students remained confined even after completing the project.

In general, however, those with a behavioral orientation will find that the book contains much valuable material. Counselors familiar with treatment systems that are not based on learning theory might miss self-report data from the students about their experiences or a discussion of the potential creation of "other-directed" people, but at the very least they will find the book both provocatively successful and frustratingly entertaining.—*Loy O. Bascue, University of Maryland, College Park.*

Using Tests in Counseling by Leo Goldman. Second edition. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1971. 483 pp. $9.95.

The first edition of Goldman's book in 1961 was widely acclaimed as a valuable addition to the counseling literature. The most meaningful statement one can make about the

new edition is that it still deserves this commendation. Standardized tests are tools in the use of which counselors are expected to demonstrate skill. The book concentrates on the component skills: selecting, administering, and scoring tests; interpreting, communicating, and recording the information they provide. Numerous case examples illustrate the principles discussed. Research findings are thoughtfully considered.

The most valuable chapters are those that focus on the interpretation of test results (chapters 7 through 11). The concept of *bridges* between scores and the characteristics of people to which they are related is a central theme around which complex ideas are organized. The least valuable chapters are those on selecting, administering, and scoring tests (chapters 4, 5, and 6). The writing here seems more pedestrian, and some redundancy occurs. Topics adequately covered in chapter 2 reappear in chapter 4. Statistical and clinical prediction, discussed in detail in chapters 8, 9, and 10, does not really deserve the attention it gets in chapter 4.

How much change has this momentous

decade given rise to in the new revision? The author has made a conscientious effort to add all of the research findings reported during the period and sections representing new concerns. What he has not done so thoroughly is to delete or shorten discussions that no longer seem as relevant as they once did. For example, does the argument about statistical and clinical prediction deserve the space that we once thought it did?

This is obviously a minor criticism about which reviewers might differ. *Using Tests in Counseling* is an excellent book, indispensable to counselors in training.—*Leona E. Tyler, University of Oregon, Eugene.*

Educational and Psychological Testing: A Study of the Industry and Its Practices by Milton G. Holmen and Richard F. Docter. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1972. 218 pp. $7.95.

This is not just another book on testing, as the first part of its title suggests. It is a unique book that is oriented to the testing industry, as the second part of its title indicates.

In 1965 a committee of psychologists met to discuss the public upset over testing and concluded that more information was needed about the testing industry. This book is the authors' attempt to provide such information. The authors comment: "Our mission was to try to piece together a peculiar kind of jigsaw puzzle and to make its design a bit more comprehensible. We have also been highly evaluative and have commented critically where we believed this to be justified."

I came away from reading and studying the book with a clearer perspective of some areas and with scattered bits of new information. The authors developed a framework of six testing subsystems within an assessment system that they apply as a standard to test companies and users of tests. I was interested to learn more about the copyright questions surrounding test answer sheets. Two bits of information that interested me were these: Six companies account for three-quarters of all tests sold, and the cost of norming, validating, and making a test manual ranges from $25,000 to $250,000.

But I think the authors are not sufficiently probing or critical. Their critical comments are global and vague, for example: "We believe too much testing continues to be carried out in the name of counseling and clinical services without the necessary conceptualization and definition of what this testing is supposed to accomplish." The book also had some editorial deficiencies. The same information appeared in several places, and information was not presented in parallel detail so that it would aid comparison between test publishers. In addition, it seems to me that the authors do not reflect a thorough knowledge of the professional literature concerning issues in testing.

This book has a unique focus and is moderately informative. It would be of little interest to most readers of the P&G JOURNAL, however. It is likely to hold the highest value for those directly engaged in the testing industry and those who teach college-level testing courses.—*Robert H. Dolliver, University of Missouri at Columbia.*

Experiences in Being edited by Bernice Marshall. Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1971. 317 pp. $4.95.

Collections of readings such as those in *Experiences in Being* present a problem for me. On the one hand, they make me feel good, stimulated, and warm, as my own biases are rubbed and massaged. On the other

hand, those hedonistic feelings seem to flash a warning light: If those ideas make me feel good, I'd better watch out, be more critical; and that kind of guilt makes me want to call forth the charge of anti-intellectualism. With this preamble, what does the collection have to offer?

Paradoxically, it offers a great deal, and yet not much. Almost like a Chinese dinner, it tasted marvelous going down, but I found myself still hungry a short time later.

The title very accurately reflects the nature of this collection—personal statements of personal experiences covering a wide range of timely, even relevant, subjects for everyone concerned with human relationships. Intended for undergraduate college students in almost any discipline and designed to engage them directly (largely through the use of dialogues between the editor and a colleague that follow most of the readings), the book didn't quite make it for me. I had the sense of being talked at rather than with, and I suspect that this will turn the undergraduate off. I am more optimistic about the book's use with graduate students—those with more experiences of their own that they can relate to those they read about.

This is still a unique contribution in the existential-humanistic field, however; I know of no other attempt to provide the perspective that this work does. To this end I intend to use this collection as supplementary reading in my Foundations for Guidance course this fall. Perhaps my students' experiences with *Experiences in Being* will fill some of that sense of hunger I have.—*Robert M. Wasson, New York University.*

COUNSELING ASIAN-AMERICANS

Special Feature Coming in February

Cultural values dictating against self-assertion and open expression of thoughts and feelings to "outsiders" have contributed to the image of Asian-Americans as "the most silent majority." The quiet Americans. The "model" minority.

The articles in the February Special Feature section of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL represent a collaborative effort of Asian-Americans to reveal how certain cultural values and the forces of racism have served to shape and define their life styles. Colin Watanabe writes on "Self-Expression and the Asian-American Experience"; George Kagiwada and Isao Fujimoto on the implications for education of Asian-American studies; Edward Kaneshige on "Cultural Factors in Group Counseling and Interaction"; Maximo J. Callao on "Culture Shock—West, East, and West Again."

Guest editor Derald Wing Sue presents these articles to provide counselors with a greater understanding of the Asian experience in America and its implications for counseling.

Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything*, including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

Albert Ellis, the founder and leading proponent of RET, explains and demonstrates his therapeutic approach in five new color films for the helping professions.

Albert Ellis: Rational Emotive Psychotherapy. RET— its origins, philosophical bases, fundamental hypotheses are cogently explained by Ellis. The nature of the therapeutic process, the role of values and recent developments are also explored.

Albert Ellis: Rational Emotive Psychotherapy Applied to Groups. Marathon weekends of rational encounter, marital counseling, groups—all receive the Ellis touch as he discusses his therapeutic approach and defines the role and training of the leader, the use of exercises, and elaborates on RET applied to group settings.

Albert Ellis: A Demonstration with an Elementary School Age Child. How will a nine-year old boy respond to RET? After a lively and colorful exchange between Ellis and the child, Ellis describes how he conceptualizes a problem, what he is accomplishing and how RET may be applied to children.

Albert Ellis: A Demonstration With a Young Divorced Woman. Divorced at 29 and guilty about her future relationship with men, Ellis shows this young woman how illogical and irrational beliefs cause her emotional disturbances. After carefully demonstrating how the effective therapist can unmask the patient's thinking, Ellis describes his techniques.

Albert Ellis: A Demonstration With A Woman Fearful of Expressing Emotion. A woman who becomes angry with herself when she can't be self-expressive has her illogical thinking unmasked by Ellis. He amply demonstrates through his ABC system how the woman's belief system is the cause of her emotional problems rather than a particular activating event. Ellis then guides the woman toward understanding how to change aspects of her behavior that she would find desirable to modify.

Each film is 30 minutes in length, 16mm, color and sound. Rental fee is $25 per day of use; sale price is $250 each; 10% discount on purchase of 5 films.

Order from the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Film Dept., 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Customers living in Alaska, Arizona, California, Hawaii, Idaho, Nevada, Oregon, Utah and Washington should order films from APGA's west coast distributor, the California Personnel and Guidance Association, Film Dept., 654 East Commonwealth Avenue, Fullerton, California 92631. Please note that payment must accompany all orders except for those on official, institutional purchase order forms.

the personnel and guidance journal

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ARTICLES

IN THE FIELD

POEMS

Feedback

Research Can Be Readable

Your editorial in the September P&G JOURNAL
has a plaintiveness about it that is understand-
able but misplaced. Editors are stuck with
what other people write, and their powers to
change the tone or style or content of that
material are limited. When people ask why
you don't publish a different kind of writing,
you're entitled to feel miffed.

But the choice you complain of being lim-
ited to is not as narrow as you describe it.
I'm with you in your dislike of a journal com-
posed largely of "little" studies, limited in
conception and execution but gaudy with
statistical gimcracks. The alternative you
offer, as indicated by recent issues and the last
few paragraphs of your editorial, consists of
exhortation and testimonial with a pinch or
two of research provided in a column and an
occasional review article.

My objection is with the implication that
research is synonymous with statistical manip-
ulation and tests of significance. Your authors
pushing PPBS systems for managing guidance
operations, contracts for effecting changes in
student behavior, or whatever else is current
could present the results of systematic ob-
servations of the effects of their favorite pro-
cedures without burying them in procedural
esoterica, tables of figures, and p values. Re-
search results are describable in ordinary
language. A study of contract counseling, for
example, could be reported by describing in
plain words two or more different counseling
procedures used, what kinds of effects were
obtained, and what seemed to account for the
differences, if any. Such an article would still
be limited in generalization, but it would be
far more informative than, "I tried contract
counseling and it works!"

The choice is not between statistical em-
bellishment and exhortation. Neither is char-
acteristic of informative journalism or in-
formative research.

JONATHAN R. WARREN
Educational Testing Service
Berkeley, California

The New Cover

The cover of the September issue was in-
triguing. There are several undergraduate
students who use my office as their classbreak
hangout, and two of them (Dinah Phillips and
Cheryl Van Divner) came up with the follow-
ing interpretation:

"It is our considered opinion that the cover
of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL is
a visual interpretation of the psychosexual
implications of the phases of the moon. See
page 32 for a related discussion on the fact
that 'every peg needs a hole.' An alternate
interpretation which corresponds and com-
plements the above interpretation is that the
arcs represent the sexual awakenings of the
pre-pubescent. The blacked-in circles repre-
sent the years of peak sexual maturity, ability,
and interest. Notice that the circle begins
deteriorating rapidly as the subject proceeds
to senility."

Thought it might interest you.

SUE HAWKINS
Trinity University

[Editor's Note: The blacked-in circles were a
printer's error; the circles were supposed to
be white. We can hardly wait to hear what
the new interpretation will be.]

Air Force service: a vocational asset

DANIEL C. PERKINS, JR.

PAUL D. KNOKE

Dan Perkins is Chief of Educational Affairs for the USAF Air Training Command, and was formerly an Associate Professor and Deputy Head of the Department of Life Sciences, United States Air Force Academy. **Paul Knoke** *is a liaison officer for Educational Affairs and a former Academy Associate Professor of English.*

As APGA members well know, young people without college prospects often look at the service as a last resort. Understandably they are impatient to get out into the world on their own. They are even more afraid that military duty will drastically retard their chances of competitive success in the civilian job market. With the draft ending, four years in the Air Force may look particularly unappealing.

But that fear is misconceived. Far from a waste of time, Air Force service can be an advantage to the youngster seeking civilian employment. **Over 90% of Air Force jobs have civilian application,** a compatibility which we reinforce from pre-enlistment to post-separation. Under the guaranteed job program, a potential enlistee can specify an available job from a list of 132 possibilities; if he doesn't get it, he can leave the service. For a veteran there is the GI Bill, which helps him complete up to 36 months of college education at a current monthly rate of $175, more with dependents.

In the meantime the Air Force sends the recruit to a good technical training school. It encourages him to further pursue his professional and educational training by funding as much as 75% of the tuition for off-duty courses, and by completely subsidizing more than 200 correspondence courses offered through the U. S. Armed Forces Institute. **But most unique of all is the new Community College of the Air Force.** This agency is now proceeding toward full civilian accreditation of its seven technical schools. It will provide each airman with a transcript of his education/training, particularly meaningful when he leaves the service. And it will award him an Associate in Technology Certificate in one of 76 majors upon completion of a minimum of 64 semester hours of Air Force and college instruction.

That leaves pay. To the annual $5700 ($6200 if married) that airmen earn after two years and three promotions, add a paid 30-day vacation, free medical and dental care, travel opportunity, and shopping/insurance/recreation savings. **Department of Labor figures show that on the average the airman nets over $40 a month more than his civilian counterpart.**

We think the Air Force is a vocational asset worth many young peoples' consideration. **This office plans to exhibit at your forthcoming national and regional conventions. Please stop by. Or write us at Hq ATC/RSAE, Randolph Air Force Base, Texas 78148.**

APGA's Political Influence

With the recent publication of two articles by Healy (September 1972), I am delighted that the JOURNAL has decided to come out of its ivory tower and recognize the political framework within which we are functioning.

However, one statement by Healy strikes me as overly optimistic: "APGA is recognized for its professional expertise, and the public and its leaders would listen when APGA spoke as a profession."

Instead, let us assume that a large number of organizations (APGA, the American Psychological Association, the National Council of Social Workers, and the American Federation of Teachers, for example) took a position on a particular issue. Let us also assume that newspaper ads were taken in a congressman's district discussing this issue. I should think the congressman would seriously consider APGA's views in this context.

The American Medical Association has wielded enormous political influence all out of proportion to its numbers, as Healy noted. Let us learn from their example.

JOHN BICKFORD
V.A. Hospital
Montrose, New York

Accountability and Humanism

In reading Charles Humes' article "Accountability: A Boon to Guidance" in the September 1972 issue, I was moved to write in the margin of the JOURNAL, "He's serious." But when I read parts of the article aloud to my colleagues at the Guidance and Counseling Department meeting and observed their amused and incredulous reactions, I wondered. So I reread it, especially the examples on pages 23 and 24, which Mr. Humes endorses. Remarkable! He *was* serious. He was serious despite the fact that of some 400 students I have worked closely with over the last six years—students becoming counselors —I cannot recall one who even *might* have accepted the artificial rigidities of those listed outcomes. He was serious despite the fact that of the "ten 11th grade girls described as social isolates" one just *might* have been moving toward self-actualization and relished being alone and not a member of a club;

what damage then to the desired outcome percentages?

Mr. Humes notes that counselors would tend not to admit the measurability of counseling, while researchers and counselor educators would. *If* that is true, one wonders which group has the most accurate perceptions. Could one or more groups be looking at the world from inside the milk bottle, and thus does all the world appear white?

Mr. Humes cites the assessment of the end product as a way to justify our services to the public. Perhaps we could also establish a life expectancy for our "product," guaranteed to work efficiently for 11 years after counseling?

It strikes me that what might be troubling our nation has something to do with the industrial end product syndrome—the person as a passive, acted-upon, molded pawn instead of an active and initiating origin. Do we then snap *to* when it attempts to invade one of our most humanistic sanctuaries, the counseling field? Or do we resist? I resist.

STANLEY CHARNOFSKY
California State University
Northridge, California

Expanding Professional Boundaries

It is not my nature to write letters to editors, but I want to commend your printing of "Transpersonal Approaches to Counseling," by Martin H. Astor (June 1972). It brought out techniques that I have wanted to put into practice for a long time.

I have been a counselor for two years. During this time, I was taught to use the methods of Freud and Rogers, two persons I will always admire, but I have wanted to expand my professional boundaries beyond their theories to work with "the total person, inner and outer, conscious and unconscious, from the top of his head to the tip of his toes."

Astor's article, in my opinion, *will* open new areas of experience for counselors. It suggests new theories, tools, and techniques while it emphasizes the positive potential of man's totalities. I believe today's American youngsters need the "infinite spiritual capacity" to help *themselves*.

LOIS R. ROGERS
Wake Forest Junior High School
Wake Forest, North Carolina

Editorial

GRADES: A CRUSADE FOR COUNSELORS

Grades as they are used in most schools and colleges are a mess. From time to time we rearrange the mess by switching from numbers to letters, or adding pluses and minuses, or really going revolutionary into a P/F system. But the mess remains.

Counselors should know this better than anyone else because they see how confusing the system is to all the different people who use it—colleges, parents, and the students themselves. Any counselor who is looking for a way to make an impact on the entire institution will find the grading system a ripe fruit waiting to be picked.

This topic resurfaced for me recently as I read Richard Hunt's article in the July 1972 *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance*. Hunt proposes a multiple grading system in which five different grades are used: the student's own judgment of his progress; the instructor's evaluation of the student's work without regard to other students; the student's standing on tests as compared with the standing of others in the class; his standing as compared with a broader norm group; and finally, a simple indication of whether the student received credit for the course. Students, their counselors, and their advisors would have access to all the grades, but outsiders would receive only selected information.

One need not buy Hunt's specific package to agree that the plan makes a lot of sense. For me there are two important principles that should be recognized in any sensible grading system, assuming that grades are going to be used at all. First, it is ridiculous to try to force into one number or letter all the different kinds of information that go into teachers' grades and that are weighted differently by different teachers—how much was learned, how much effort was put forth, neatness, accuracy, originality, and so much more. Second, different people need different things out of a grading system—the student, teachers, counselors, advisors, parents, graduate schools, and others concerned.

Here is a great opportunity for counselors to get involved with the whole problem of grading and even to take the lead in examining the grading system of a school or college and trying to get it changed. We have several kinds of expertise to draw on. We know the students and how they perceive grades, we understand something about what the next school wants out of our grades, and we know from our tests and measurements how to break the problem down into its logical components: purposes of the assessment, different types of scales and scores, norms, reliability, and so on.

Are you looking for a crusade? Or even just a way to make the life of an entire institution more meaningful and effective for your counselees and others? Try grades. ■ LG

Microcounseling: the counselor as trainer

ALLEN E. IVEY

The skills of the counselor are too important to be used only in the guidance office. The counselor should move into the school and the community to teach others the various skills of counseling and interpersonal communication. Microcounseling is a systematic method for teaching counseling skills in a short period of time. The author explains the relationship of microcounseling and counselor education to the role of the practicing counselor. He believes that conducting systematic training programs in such skills as microcounseling should become an important role for counselors.

A new and important role is appearing on the scene for the counselor—that of counselor educator. Counselors increasingly are being asked to conduct training programs for paraprofessionals, teachers, parents, and students. No longer can counseling skills be considered as strictly confined to the counseling cubicle.

Counselors may be found training high school students as peer counselors, parents as paraprofessionals in drug counseling, and community members as hot line operators. Inservice workshops for teachers in affective education and counseling skills are increasingly in demand. Clearly, the counselor of the future must carefully consider his role in the teaching of counseling and human relations skills.

Microcounseling, a systematic video method of teaching counseling skills, has proven to be one successful method in which the sometimes mysterious skills of the counselor are clearly defined and presented in concrete, readily transmis-

sible form. Crucial to microcounseling is the "demystification process." Can you as a counselor really define what you are doing in words and actions that communicate to others what you are doing?

MICROCOUNSELING AND DEMYSTIFICATION

Consider the question: What are the behaviors of the effective counselor? Answers such as warmth, positive regard, and empathy don't count. While they do exist and are important, have you ever seen a "warmth" or a "positive regard"? They are not observable, directly teachable behaviors. You may know what they are, but can you teach them to someone else? You cannot teach others warmth, but you can teach counseling skills that can help a person become warmer and more empathic.

A research team at Colorado State University (Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morrill & Haase 1968) in 1966 set about to identify specific concrete behaviors of counselors so that counselor education could become a less mysterious process. The first six months of investigation into what behaviors the effective and empathic counselor exhibited were unsuccessful, despite the fact that the team could readily discriminate the "good" counselor from the "bad." The problem was that

ALLEN E. IVEY is Professor, Human Relations Center, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.

most of the team had trouble viewing counseling from a behavioral perspective.

Following an old maxim—"If you don't know what you are doing, try teaching it to someone else"—the team called in a secretary and a volunteer student client. The secretary was to "counsel," or interview, the student, and the interview was to be videotaped. The interview lasted five minutes, and the videotape showed that during this time the secretary (a) looked at the floor and out the window and occasionally glanced at the client; (b) sat very tensely and primly; and (c) asked closed-ended questions such as "Where are you from?" "What's your major?" "Do you like it here?" After many awkward pauses and topic jumps, the five-minute session was concluded. In many ways the secretary performed like the awkward beginning counselor.

The team then reviewed the videotape with the secretary and first pointed out to her that if she wanted to talk to someone, an essential thing to do was look at the person. It was next suggested that she relax physically and direct her attention to the interviewee rather than to herself. Finally, the team explained a few principles of asking open-ended questions and sticking to one topic. These three points—eye contact, physical attentiveness, verbal attention—later became identified as a general construct termed "attending behavior."

The secretary returned to the room for a second five-minute videotaping session with the same student. This time she (a) maintained eye contact; (b) allowed her body to be more natural, as she was now giving her attention to the student; and (c) was able to follow the student's words and keep him talking with just a few comments and questions on her part. After her 45-minute training session, she had performed like an effective interviewer. Since that time many counselors, paraprofessionals, parents, and students have gone through similar training in attending and other basic counseling skills in widely varying school and work settings.

The three aspects of attending behavior certainly do not comprise the whole of counseling, nor are they synonymous with warmth or empathy. But these simple skills are so obvious that they are often missed by the beginning counselor. Further, these three aspects are part of what most counselors would call warmth; it is hard to be empathic and warm without first attending to the other person. As one learns better to attend and listen, he can later learn other, more complex skills of interviewing. Moreover, attending skills help the beginning counselor give direction to natural empathy.

THE MICROCOUNSELING FORMAT

Attending behavior has become the basic skill of the microcounseling framework, a systematic method of counselor skills training. The classical format of microcounseling is as follows:

1. A five-minute counseling session between a trainee and a volunteer client (actor, roleplaying friend, classmate, or real client) is videotaped or audiotaped.

2. Training
   a. A written manual or a programmed text describing the single skill being taught is given to the trainee.
   b. Reading about a skill is not sufficient, so video or audio models of "experts" demonstrating the skill are presented so that the trainee may see and hear clearly what the skill looks like.
   c. The trainee sees or hears his taped session and compares his performance with that described in the skill manual and that demonstrated by the expert.

3. A second five-minute session is taped, and the review process is repeated.

Videotape is generally a more powerful teaching medium than audiotape, but good results have been obtained with audiotape, particularly when highly verbal counseling skills are being stressed.

The entire procedure is supported by a warm, empathic supervisor-trainer. The procedure takes approximately 45 minutes to an hour and may be repeated for those trainees who find the skill being taught difficult to grasp. This multifaceted approach, which provides a written manual, the teaching of a single skill, self-observation, direct and immediate practice, and close supervision, has proven the most effective method in several research studies (Ivey 1971). Many variations of the standard microcounseling training paradigm have proven successful, however.

The two most important aspects of the microcounseling paradigm are the single skills emphasis and the self-observation on videotape—the first because counselor educators confuse many trainees by teaching all the skills of counseling at once, and the second because the trainee's seeing himself as others see him is a powerful experience. But microcounseling is more than teaching attending behavior and specific skills. A recent book on microcounseling (Ivey 1971) presents 12 specific skills of counseling, including written and programmed manuals discussing each one. Four skill clusters are presented, dividing counseling into (a) skills of the beginning counselor (attending behavior, open-ended questions, minimal encouragement); (b) listening skills (reflection of feeling, paraphrasing, summarizing); (c) sharing skills (expression of feeling, interpretation of test scores, direct mutual communication); and (d) interpretation skills.

Microcounseling skills have been developed with an eye to clarity of presentation. With only slight adaptation, the materials have been used in training programs with groups as varying as elementary students, junior high students, sophisticated inservice counselors, and advanced medical students. It has been found that the counselor can take this technique and develop his own program of counselor training or human relations training quickly and effectively.

Microcounseling was first developed as a preservice training method for beginning counselors. However, a number of workshops for inservice counselors reveal that the skills approach to counselor training is useful for experienced counselors as well. The format of microcounseling, with specific guidelines for videotape or audiotape review, add a new precision to the study of an individual's counseling style. At more advanced levels of practice, specific skills of interpretation or reinforcement techniques can be adapted to the microcounseling framework.

One of the most dramatic pieces of evidence of the effectiveness of microcounseling was provided by Gluckstern (1972), who trained parents as paraprofessional drug counselors. Not only did the parents learn counseling skills during the 40-hour training program, but they maintained their skill level over a seven-month follow-up period. Further, the parents are now able to listen to one another's taped interviews and provide peer supervision for one another. For example, they can point out specific places where an interview went wrong: "You used a closed question and shut him up where an open question would have helped him continue" or "You made an interpretation where a reflection of feeling would have worked better."

APPLICATIONS OF MICROCOUNSELING

The microcounseling framework has been tested with a variety of trainee populations and in each case has shown to be one method through which specific skills of counseling and therapy can be

learned in a relatively short time. It would seem to follow, as guidance and personnel programs move from remediation and therapy to prevention and education, that microcounseling techniques might be useful in teaching counseling skills or the "developmental skills of living" to students, parents, and other groups.

One of the most carefully delineated microcounseling studies is that of Aldrige (1971), who taught junior high students the skills of attending behavior. He found that they learned these skills as readily as beginning counselor trainees and that the number of eye contact breaks, body movements, and topic jumps decreased markedly with training in more general attending skills. Aldrige's work suggests that communication skill clinics are feasible as part of the junior or senior high school guidance program. Students, under the leadership of a skilled counselor, could examine their own behavior and learn a variety of interpersonal skills. In this model the counselor becomes a facilitator and teacher, thus moving into a new and important human development role.

Inservice training for teachers and counselors is another possibility for microcounseling. Many teachers could learn how to communicate with their students more effectively. At the University of Massachusetts, training in attending skills is a standard part of the teacher training program. Teacher trainees in this program are also encouraged to observe the communication patterns of the elementary and secondary students with whom they work. A wide variety of innovative ideas for incorporating microcounseling skills into the elementary classroom as part of regular classroom instruction have been developed at the University of Massachusetts.

The single skills approach of microcounseling has proven a helpful adjunct to therapeutic work as well, particularly with clients who find themselves unable to act in a confusing world. Training in attending skills has proven helpful to students who have trouble talking with others or who have few friends; it has helped them to listen to others and eventually express themselves better.

Microcounseling and its companion media therapy have also been tested with psychiatric patients. The basic model for teaching behavioral skills is a variation of the standard microcounseling approach. Patients are videotaped in a conversation with the therapist. The videotape is then shown, and the patient himself determines what behaviors he would like to change. Many patients begin by selecting nonverbal skills of communication closely resembling the nonverbal components of attending behavior. Relaxing, using more or fewer gestures, and looking at others instead of at the floor are examples of behaviors patients have selected to learn. Many patients observe that they don't listen well, and they ask for training in attending skills. Patients who jump from one idea to another, after seeing themselves on videotape, are often able to recognize that they "don't stay on the topic."

Psychiatric patients appear able to respond to the single skills aspect of microcounseling and media therapy exceptionally well. They enjoy seeing themselves improve rapidly; this feeling of accomplishment and mastery may be more important than the skill acquired. And it is commonly known that once a patient has learned a skill to his satisfaction, he often shows improvement in other areas of communication and personal functioning as well.

Microcounseling and counselor education, therefore, need to consider not only the teaching of counseling skills but also the teaching of human relations behaviors as a constructive part of daily living. Demands from the counseling profession for more trained people are great, and one of the most effective methods for reaching a maximum number of in-

dividuals is teaching counseling skills systematically to others.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

While there is good evidence that microcounseling can produce immediate change in trainees, this change will not last unless the skills are practiced in interpersonal or work settings. Several research studies have revealed that the skills learned in microcounseling can be integrated, retained, and even increased over time. A few studies, however, have revealed that the skills have been lost by some trainees; in those cases the individual was in a work setting that did not permit much in the way of counseling practice. It seems imperative, therefore, that microcounseling training be followed by actual counseling sessions with systematic supervision. This supervision may take a traditional form or, as Gluckstern (1972) noted, may take the form of peer supervision.

Not everyone responds positively to the skills approach of microcounseling. Those with a humanistic bent sometimes object to the precision of definition, and those with a behavioral orientation sometimes claim that even more precision is required. In working within the microcounseling framework, the counselor educator should develop his own theoretical framework and adapt the skills to fit his own personal constructs. An attempt has been made to keep microcounseling oriented to skill rather than theory, in order to encourage multiple approaches to the counseling process.

Those who work in guidance, counseling, and human development seem to be agreeing increasingly that competing models of man are just that—models. Theory development and model building are useful arts, but different models offer different pictures of "truth." Rather than confine a training program to one model—be it behavioral, analytic, or existential—microcounseling emphasizes underlying skills common to most theories of counseling. The student or trainer need only organize the skills in his own unique fashion.

Microcounseling has recently been found applicable to instruction in the skills of group leadership (Ivey 1973). Evidence is accumulating that group leaders of varying theoretical orientations use skills that are very similar to those of the microcounseling paradigm. By the use of specific skills, the counselor sets the tone and determines what will happen in his group.

There are many other modifications and applications of the microcounseling model. Goshko (1972) recently adapted the group and individual techniques of microcounseling to a training model for elementary children in self-observation and communication skills. Bizer (1972) has been using attending skills and related constructs as parts of a parent training program in behavior modification skills. Sullivan (1972) has been using the model as part of a training program for high school peer counselors. Zeevi (1970) developed and has been using a modular two-day program in attending skills to serve as an introduction to encounter-type groups and also to train day camp leaders. A university has adapted the techniques to train faculty counselors. Applications have been made in teaching speech pathology, high school psychology, drug consultation, and interviewing in medical schools.

The future of microcounseling rests with the individual counselor. It is time for the practicing counselor to view himself as a counselor educator, one who teaches others the skills of counseling and communication. In an age that is moving toward accountability, the specificity of microcounseling may make it especially useful. There now exist fully developed skill units and methods that the counselor can use as models to develop his training programs in a variety of human relations and counseling skills. With experience and practice, the coun-

selor can move in his own direction with his own conception of counseling skills for his unique situation. ∎

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The effectiveness of an ombudsman

JOSEPH W. DREW

Most people in our colleges and universities believe that the concept of an ombudsman, developed in the political area, could have a significant influence in institutions of higher education. In this article the author, himself a full-time ombudsman at a large urban college, attempts to correct some prevailing misconceptions about the office and indicate the source of an ombudsman's effectiveness.

Recently a group of ombudsmen, deans of students, and administrators met in New York to discuss the emerging role of the ombudsman in higher education. A black administrator, heading up a special program for minority students, remarked to the group: "The ombudsman has got to be *credible* to people, and the only way he can be credible is to produce results."

The counseling journals of late have featured numerous articles on the possibilities of applying the concept of an ombudsman to higher education, pointing out that the ombudsman would benefit an institution by providing a remedy for the excess of bureaucracy. Few people would argue with the desirability of having a moral watchdog for the campus. But the question—perhaps the only real question—is: How effective is an ombudsman?

THE POWER PARADOX

There is a paradox that haunts the life of every ombudsman, a paradox that he must learn to accept. The paradox lies in the fact that the academic community sets him apart from administration, faculty, and even students. The community gives him no juridical power. He can never take action himself; he must constantly resort to recommendations to the normal channels. He may investigate and investigate and investigate. He may uncover the most egregious injustices and still be powerless to correct or remove them. The paradox in all this is that the community, which removes him safely from the grip of any particular power faction of the college by divesting him of the normal administrative, faculty, or student power, nevertheless expects him to produce results. He should redress grievances; he should prevent bureaucratic infringements on freedom; he should, in a word, *effectuate* justice. After one has read through all the lofty literature on the significance of the ombudsman to higher education, the raw questions still remain: Is he credible? Does he get results? Does the powerless ombudsman have the clout to effect change?

After a year's onsite experience as an ombudsman at Queens College, my thesis—and it must necessarily be a tentative one—is that the ombudsman can be effective, but for very different reasons than most people think.

No self-respecting ombudsman would work to aggrandize needless power. The

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normal concept that academe has created of the ombudsman is that of a John the Baptist, stripped of material goods and power, crying out from his vantage point in the desert. There is truth to this "moral figure" role, but what so many refuse to acknowledge is that this image means little if the person behind that image does not produce results. The ombudsman can cry from the desert year after year, and if the inhabitants of our academic cities do not or will not hear, then he becomes nothing more than a frustrated prophet and his office a mean hoax to placate disgruntled members of the academic community.

I am reminded of the incident in which a troubled student complained that a certain administrator refused her a service to which she had a right. I listened, and I promised that I would speak with the administrator. Generally, this administrator had responded favorably to moral and human considerations. Normally, I could persuade him to right a wrong by pointing out the presence of certain extenuating circumstances or relevant human factors. In this case, for reasons that the administrator deemed important, he absolutely refused to grant her request. I interviewed her again and attempted to present his reasons for the refusal. Understandably, she was not satisfied with his reasons or my own efforts in the case. She wanted service, not sympathy; action, not words of explanation. I agreed that she was right. With an appeal over the administrator's head to a higher authority, I was able to obtain this service for her.

ESTABLISHING CREDIBILITY

I have no objections to the community's fantasizing about its need for a moral conscience or Socratic gadfly. What the community should appreciate is that this moral posture makes sense only insofar as it becomes real power.

The ombudsman in his moral figure role may come to exert real influence over those members of the academic community who occupy positions of power. But this influence does not come automatically. It flows not from the theory of the neutrality of the office of ombudsman but rather from the practice of the particular ombudsman. If, in fact, the particular ombudsman has done his preliminary work properly, if he has separated the legitimate from the illegitimate complaints, if, in other words, he consistently approaches someone in power with a "bona fide" complaint, then his recommendation assumes the power of moral demand and persuasion. The administrator, though legally not bound to follow an ombudsman's recommendation, would find it difficult to refuse the advice of someone who, through experience and past practice, has proven *credible*.

During the past year at Queens College, approximately 500 students and 70 faculty and staff have had interviews with me on a host of different problems and complaints. The first task of the ombudsman is to determine the legitimacy of the problem and the feasibility of the campus' solving it. As a matter of fact, I took definite action on fewer than half of the situations brought to me. The reasons? Many people did not wish any action taken. Many others came merely for information or sympathy. But a sizable minority simply did not have legitimate complaints. Perhaps the most critical task laid upon the ombudsman is separating the legitimate from the illegitimate. Should the ombudsman indiscriminately appeal for every student, faculty, or staff member, he would quickly lose any semblance of moral power or persuasion. On the other hand, an ombudsman who acts constantly with justice and discretion will find that the moral figure role can produce substantial results.

People holding official positions in the academic community are prone to the

same weaknesses and faults that other humans possess. Academic officials can be greedy, ambitious, and insensitive to human rights. If confronted by an appeal on moral grounds, they can blithely choose to ignore it. It is precisely at this point—when an official has rejected a legitimate recommendation by the ombudsman—that the crisis of credibility occurs. The ombudsman who, after thorough investigation, finds a matter of serious injustice must risk the anger of the pertinent official and attempt to resolve the complaint at a higher level.

Every administrator and every faculty member must know that the ombudsman can and will, if circumstances demand, go over any official's head to effect the desired result. Without this clear understanding by the academic community, the ombudsman presents no real threat to an indifferent or insensitive official and, on a larger scale, loses the trust of the entire community. There is a direct relationship between the results the ombudsman achieves when acting on legitimate complaints and the trust he inspires in the community.

Without effectiveness, which is defined as the power to resolve legitimate complaints favorably, the ombudsman and his office become a sham. He pretends to accomplish what in fact he does not. He arouses false expectations in those administrators, faculty, and students who look to him for help.

A final point must be added to complete this discussion on effectiveness. The power to resolve legitimate complaints by the real or threatened recourse to higher authority depends directly on complete support from the highest administrative officer in the college. If the president or equivalent officer does not wholeheartedly support both the goals and, more importantly, the critical recommendations of the ombudsman, the structure of the ombudsman's power collapses.

A fellow ombudsman told me of an unusual incident that brought this home to him. He had made an appointment to see the president of his college in order to invite him personally to a social evening. He and the president chatted amiably for 10 or 15 minutes, and the ombudsman made ready to leave. On his way out, escorted by the president, they both noticed two high-ranking administrators of the college waiting in the outer office. The president turned to the ombudsman and in a clearly audible voice said, "I appreciate your bringing this matter to my attention. Realize that my door is open to you at any time." Some time later, that ombudsman reported to me that both of the high-ranking administrators seemed more open and sympathetic in their dealings with him. It is the president that will finally provide the strength of the ombudsman's office. Recalling the remark of the black administrator: "The ombudsman has got to be *credible* to people, and the only way he can be credible is to produce results."

THE KEY TO THE OFFICE

The literature to date concerning the ombudsman in higher education has concentrated on the theoretical desirability of the position. In many ways it has failed to deal with the practical considerations of the job. Moreover, by pointing out that the ombudsman lacks any juridical power to make or revise decisions, the literature has inadvertently led people to believe that the ombudsman is powerless. If this were so, the position would be a farce. In reality, the ombudsman does have power, although it is not juridical. His power stems from the moral force of a community that *believes* he is in fact exercising integrity in the handling of cases brought to him and from the constant support he receives for his handling of legitimate cases from those who are in positions of juridical authority. The key, then, to

the ombudsman's office is genuine effectiveness.

I have used the word *genuine* intentionally, for genuine effectiveness can never be measured by statistics. Nothing would destroy the ombudsman more quickly than his indiscriminate advocacy of any kind of complaint. Nor would he retain credibility if he quixotically rushed without thorough investigation to right the wrongs of academe. The ombudsman who aspires to be genuinely effective must carefully weigh rejections by appropriate officials, for he may have initially misunderstood certain relevant data. To question rashly the competence or integrity of an official would spell the doom of an ombudsman's effectiveness just as surely as would his blatant failure to pursue a clearly valid complaint.

The ombudsman does not exist outside the mix and crush of normal campus forces. Though he absents himself from juridical power and from campus political life, he cannot afford to neglect the bases of his true power. For it is due to the prudent and conscientious use of that power that his office exists. ∎

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The counselor as psychoecologist

PETER J. KURILOFF

Counselors may be in need of a new model of practice. Current approaches based on the intrapersonal models of psychotherapy are not congruent with institutional realities. More important, they assume, often falsely, a "disturbed" person who must be adjusted to a "normal" environment. This article suggests that emotional disturbance be viewed as an ecological phenomenon that exists in the transactions among people. The task of the counselor is to alter disturbed transactions in ways that promote individual competence. The implications for practice of viewing the counselor as a psychoecologist are discussed and illustrated through a case study.

Current counseling practices depend heavily on the concepts and procedures of various models of psychotherapy. Such models, be they Freudian, Adlerian, Rogerian, or Skinnerian, share at least three crucial features. First, each one involves the notion of an "ill" or "disturbed" person who needs help. Second, by locating the problem within the individual, each model usually depends on the individual's cooperation in a more or less long-term effort to solve the problem either by restructuring his personality, strengthening his self-concept, or getting rid of his symptoms. Third, each model implicitly assumes a "normal" environment to which the "abnormal" individual must be adjusted.

Aubrey (1969) raised some cogent questions concerning the applicability of psychotherapy models to the practice of counseling in schools and, by implication, in other settings such as colleges and employment agencies. He pointed

out that the counselor must operate in circumstances that differ markedly from those of the psychotherapist in either a clinic or a private practice. Besides the time pressures caused by huge case loads and a variety of institutional demands, the counselor must cope with conflicting notions of whose agent he is. This means that many of his clients come to him reluctantly or even involuntarily. When "ideal" counseling cases do present themselves, the counselor usually finds it difficult or impossible to schedule regular sessions over extended periods of time. What Aubrey does not mention, however, is the mounting body of evidence supplied by such critics as Goodman (1964), Henry (1963), Jackson (1968), and Kozol (1967), which suggests that even if it were possible, it might not be desirable to adjust children to the school environment.

Clearly, new models are needed that are not only compatible with institutional norms and expectations, as Aubrey suggests, but that also provide ways of altering and improving them. In other words, the new models should include an objective or set of objectives that relates to helping people cope with, operate effectively in, and *master* their environments. White's (1959, 1960) concept of competence represents just such an objective. The concept is relevant

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because it is what schools are, or should be, about. It is also relevant because it contains implicit methodological suggestions. It takes into account the existence and importance of an inner life, is rooted in an understanding of development, and stresses the importance of acting on the environment and receiving feedback in the nature of consequences from the environment. Practically, this means that new models must aim to foster situations in which clients can act, experience the consequences of their actions, and have an opportunity to reflect on their experiences and their feelings about them. What are the dimensions of a framework in which these aims may be achieved? Where and how can the counselor achieve them?

PSYCHOLOGICAL ECOLOGY

One model holding much promise can be based on a rough analogy drawn from the science of ecology. Ecology is the study of the relationship between organisms and their environment. It carries with it the connotation that living things are interrelated and interdependent in complex ways. It describes an open system capable of self-regulation and self-revitalization within broad limits (von Bertalanffy 1968). Changes in any one element of an ecological system usually affect all other elements in complex, indeterminate ways.

The term *psychological ecology* is broad and imprecise. It is a heuristic metaphor for the interdependencies of men and their *human* environments. The notion of transaction is used to approximate the complex bargaining processes that characterize the relationship between individuals and their environments (Dewey & Bently 1960). The psychological ecology cannot be totally defined from a given individual's point of view; rather it represents the confluence of all individual life spaces within a given natural setting.

Following Rhodes (1967, 1968a, 1968b), we take as a core concept of psychological ecology the idea that a disturbed person exists because someone is disturbed by him. In this sense he may be considered *disturbing*. The disturbance is conceptualized as existing in the transaction between the person and his external environment. "It lies as much in the complementary responses and interpretations of the observer as it does in the individual's differences [Rhodes 1968b, p. 504]." Unaccustomed differences in an individual evoke resonance in the other individuals who share the same ecological system.

Strange or unorthodox behavior such as drug addiction, alcoholism, mental illness, delinquency, etc., becomes the releaser of corresponding excited behavior in surrounding others. This reflexive response of the family, the class, the community or the society can take many forms. It can be retaliatory, extrusive, avoidant, etc. [Rhodes 1968a, p. 1].

Anthropological findings, as well as the few recorded historical cases in which such negative reactions were not forthcoming, reveal just how shared the phenomenon of disturbance is. When Pinel unchained the supposedly violent mental patients of Bicêtre at the close of the eighteenth century, they became less violent and deranged (Dumont 1968). Similarly, Dumont (1968) reports that his study of Geel, a Belgian village that has cared for the "possessed" in an unrestrained manner for over a millenium, revealed people we would call schizophrenic going about their lives like other villagers. They evinced none of the disabling, dependent *incompetence* found in our hospitalized schizophrenics. Benedict's (1934) examples, drawn from many cultures, demonstrate that Geel is not unique and that the "primitive" explanatory systems of many peoples gain for their society a flexibility in dealing with deviant behavior that our "advanced" systems fail to provide.

When the evidence described above is combined with modern findings re-

garding the role of disturbed family relations in mental illness (Bateson, Jackson, Haley & Weakland 1956; Henry 1963) and the even more important data concerning the impact of socioeconomic deprivation on the entire spectrum of human development (Eisenberg 1962), it is no longer possible to view mental illness as something entirely endogenous to the individual. In no way does this deny the possibility that intrapsychic, organic, or learned phenomena play a role in the problem. Rather, it means that intrapersonal explanations leave out significant aspects of the problem and by their very formulation often contribute to it—sometimes actually create it. Any attempt to understand deviant behavior without taking into account the reactive processes of society will be incomplete. It follows that any treatment model based on such a narrow view cannot be fully efficacious.

THE PSYCHOECOLOGICAL COUNSELOR

When disturbance is assumed to reflect the quality of transaction between the excitor(s) and the reactor(s), the locus of treatment changes. Instead of being limited to the excitor, it may be extended to the entire ecological system under consideration. In this sense disturbance becomes an educational opportunity in which education is broadly construed so as to include psychological welfare. Because all individuals within the system are interrelated, and because any change in one will, to a greater or lesser extent, influence all others, a major problem of such practice is to determine where a minimum input can have the maximum effect. This suggests that the practitioner must know intimately the system with which he is dealing before he can act to alter its equilibrium. One role that encompasses both these aspects—a way of knowing and a way of acting—is that of observer-participant.

The psychoecological counselor enters into a given ecology as an observer-participant to observe the nature of the transactions and to participate in creating ways to alter them in positive (i.e., competence enhancing) directions. His observations are carried out self-consciously in the manner of a well-trained cultural anthropologist (Bruyn 1966), and his perceptions are informed by a knowledge of developmental frameworks. His participation takes the form of developing on-the-spot action plans. This means that in his own approach to his work, as well as in his advice and suggestions to others, he thinks in the terms of a scientific investigator. When confronted with a problematic phenomenon, he attempts to make what Peirce (1931) called a retroduction. He gathers data by observing and by asking pertinent questions. He then tries to make sense of this data in terms of the various theoretical frameworks he has at his disposal. He is successful when he can formulate a hypothesis that renders the previously problematic phenomenon intelligible. Finally, he proposes an action plan or a manner of testing it (Fuller, Brown & Peck 1967). He goes through the entire process in the presence of those he hopes to help, seeking to involve them at every stage.

AN ILLUSTRATION

The process of observation and participation through hypothesis testing can be illustrated by describing a typical case drawn from the combined experiences of junior high school counselors—the writer's supervisees—interning in the Philadelphia area.

During the second month of the fall term, Miss T, an eighth grade English teacher in her first year of teaching, came to see the counselor. She was visibly agitated and almost on the verge of tears. She explained that one of her students, Tony, was "driving [her] crazy." He was "hostile, sullen, and im-

possible to manage." Matters had come to a head that morning, when she had passed out mimeographed excerpts of *The Cool World* (Miller 1959), a novel about the leader of a street gang. As one student read aloud, she noticed Tony playing with a magic marker. "Following school policy," she asked him to please hand it to her. When he refused, she reached for it and, as he backed away, brushed against him. At this he erupted into a torrent of curses, threatening to "get" her if she touched him again. Shocked both at the threat and the language, Miss T asked Tony to go to the disciplinary room. Now, because she was sure he was seriously "disturbed," she wanted him to receive help as well as discipline.

After comforting the teacher, the counselor spent the next few days observing the class. He noted that Tony was in constant motion. Tony appeared to be both visually and auditorily hyperalert; he was distracted by the slightest noise or motion. He spent much of his time throwing spitballs, shadowboxing, and otherwise interacting with friends. If he thought he knew an answer, he simply shouted it out, seemingly unable to restrain himself. All these actions obviously irritated the teacher.

From a psychodynamic point of view, the counselor saw Tony as seriously disturbed. His behavior indicated that he was having a very difficult time controlling his impulses. His hyperalertness, his inability to delay gratification, and his action-excitement orientation all suggested that he was substituting action for anxiety and that this mode was deeply ingrained. In short, Tony looked as if he were suffering from a classic form of character disorder—a disorder with a very poor prognosis (Rexford 1959).

In psychoecological terms, the situation looked different. The counselor knew that in Tony's environment danger was ever present. Survival on hazardous streets, in the midst of violent gang rivalries, against a background of disorganized family life, required the development of what Malone (1966) termed a "danger orientation." And, in fact, besides Tony, well over half the children in the class displayed similar behavior. Could they all be character disordered?

Whatever the diagnosis, the psychoecological perspective suggests that such behavior is bound to have consequences for all members of the setting. As Miss T tried to cope with it, her behavior began to mirror her pupils'. Even at the best of times, only a portion of the children really paid attention. Quite naturally, the teacher geared her lesson to this group. Because the others regularly interrupted, a self-reinforcing cycle was created in which Miss T taught more and more to the attentive pupils, thereby evoking more and more attention getting behavior from the "disrupters." Besides leaving her feeling defeated, frustrated, and exhausted, this daily escalation of confusion disturbed neighboring teachers. These other teachers both complained and offered advice on how Miss T could "tighten up" by thoroughly structuring each class hour, vigorously enforcing school rules, and immediately picking up any violations.

It was natural in this situation that the magic marker incident would become the focus of all Miss T's feelings of incompetence. As soon as she noticed Tony with the magic marker, she felt a conflict. On the one hand, she had heard her colleagues telling her to enforce the rules "for the good of everyone" and therefore felt ashamed of her inability to handle her class. On the other hand, she felt put upon by the requirement to confiscate the marker and resentful of the explicit demand it made on her to play policeman—especially against her better judgment. What tipped the scale was her previous bad experience with Tony.

If Miss T felt pressured, put upon, and frustrated in the context of the

school, it made sense that Tony—to say nothing of the other students—might feel similarly. Perhaps Tony had the same feelings of being unable to control his life in school. Maybe both the teacher and the child had experienced similar feelings of shame in the situation.

Miss T remembered that when she first asked Tony for the marker he had refused, claiming vehemently that it didn't belong to him. The significance of the magic marker now became apparent. The single most important psychoecological variable in the life of Philadelphia school children is the omnipresent street gang. Some time ago, gang members began building their reputations by writing their names on every available public surface in the city. Presumably, Tony was holding the marker for a fellow gang member. To have turned it over to the teacher would have violated the gang code. To have failed to retaliate when the teacher touched him would have been a further violation. Backed into a corner in front of his peers, Tony apparently had seen verbal counterattack and intransigence as the only ways to preserve his integrity.

What had seemed a simple intrapsychic problem now appeared complex indeed—but amenable to a new kind of intervention. The counselor first helped Miss T defuse the immediate situation with Tony. This was accomplished in a short talk after school in which she explored the incident with him, recognized how she had embarrassed him, and discussed how both of them had become trapped as soon as he violated a school rule everyone expected her to enforce.

The counselor next helped Miss T overcome her more general teaching problem, which, in large measure, stemmed from erroneous assumptions she held. Much of her sense of daily success was based on whether or not her pupils seemed to be paying attention. Because she assumed that if the subject matter were good enough the students would be interested, she blamed herself every time they didn't pay attention; after all, she had chosen the material. The counselor helped her see how absurd it was to expect her students to pay attention all the time, especially when some couldn't read, many were preoccupied, and most felt unsafe.

Miss T realized that if her students didn't have to pay attention all the time, they needed appropriate ways to fade in and out. This meant making her assumptions and expectations explicit. If she wanted to make the class relevant to her students, she had to begin where they were. This meant creating an atmosphere in which it was possible to tune into their private agendas. All of these ideas involved setting clear, sensible limits. These limits went a long way toward creating a climate of psychological safety in the classroom. As the children felt more controlled and safe, they relaxed and quieted down. In turn, the teacher was able to focus on what really mattered to them.

Miss T recognized the irony of her experience with Tony. She saw how gang codes had contributed to a breakdown of a discussion about a book chosen for its supposedly relevant treatment of gangs. She invited the counselor to lead a discussion about the incident. After analyzing with the class the nature of the impasse between the teacher and Tony, the counselor suggested they roleplay the situation to see if they could discover better ways to handle it. This proved as exciting as it was difficult. It also engendered a long, involved discussion about the use of markers to establish a "rep," the problem of maintaining it, and the intricacies of living within the gang code.

The following day Miss T expanded on the discussion of gang codes by asking the students to compare their experiences with gang codes to those of the characters in *The Cool World*. Together they identified a number of problem

areas that particularly concerned them. With the help of the counselor, Miss T developed a curriculum around those areas. Consisting of reading from black literature, roleplaying, group fantasizing, and other affective techniques (Borton 1970), the curriculum proved highly effective and greatly reduced the problems in the class—results consistent with those produced in other Philadelphia classrooms in which similar techniques have been employed (Newberg, Borton & Gollub 1971). This dampened the shock waves the class had been sending into surrounding classes. The criticism of Miss T abated, her staff relations improved, and she grew more relaxed. The class, in turn, became more businesslike, enjoyable, and engaging.

CONCLUSION

The psychoecological model is not limited to work in schools. It provides a powerful conceptual framework for mental health interventions in all institutions at all organizational levels. In college counseling, for example, an epidemic of exam anxiety can often be treated effectively by the counselor's helping a professor modify his unrealistic expectations. In employment counseling, a well-educated, "paranoid" blind person may show dramatic improvement once an employer is helped to overcome his prejudice.

It should be fairly obvious from these examples that the psychoecological model greatly alters the nature of counseling practice. Disturbance is not viewed as the property of an individual who is designated a "client" but as a symptom of incompetence. It indicates that people within a given setting do not have sufficient skills to get what they want from each other in legitimate ways. Because disturbance has a ripple effect, it represents an opportunity to promote change throughout the ecology.

In order to use disturbance as an op-

portunity, the counselor as psychoecologist goes about his work in the most open fashion possible. By engaging those who must carry out his hypotheses in a mutual reasoning process, he teaches them—by example—a new way of thinking about problems *they* think are important enough to bring to him. If the action tests do not work out, he must be willing to develop new hypotheses. The whole approach demands the counselor's readiness to put himself on the line by committing himself to a tentative position.

Intervention of this kind calls for a skillful exercise of judgment-in-action. Unlike the work of counselors using traditional models, the work of the counselor employing a psychoecological frame is immediately exposed to evaluation by other members of the ecology. The work cannot remain mysterious and esoteric. But the vulnerability this creates also brings with it a potentially substantial benefit. If the counselor's methods prove useful, the people with whom he works—children, teachers, parents, administrators—will be tempted to learn them. In fact, the counselor will be eager that they do. This is what Miller (1969) meant when he advocated giving psychology away to the public. There might be no better way to multiply the counselor's overall effect. ∎

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Stimulus and response

LARRY EBERLEIN

(poem by ANNE LOEWAN)

The following excerpt (from the author's book *Sensitivity to People and Messages*, 1971, reprinted with permission of the Queen's Printer, Edmonton, Alberta) served as a stimulus for a poem written by a fourth-year undergraduate student. The excerpt describes the search of a counsellor as he seeks to understand what is happening within his client. The poem by the student reflects the client's response to the faithfulness of the search and the encounter that follows. It captures the essence of a true counselling relationship from beginning to termination.

One cannot have empathy for another person unless he is willing to allow the experiences of that relationship to affect his own life. When one allows another to touch him psychologically he is usually able to touch in return. I like to use the analogy of a house in which a person lives:

A house represents a shell filled with many varied and rich experiences. The house has an address but it may be located on an isolated country road or on a very busy street, and may be difficult to find. The person living in that house gives us his address and tries to tell us again and again where he can be found. We seek and we search up one lane and down another, up one back alley and down another. For a moment we think we have found the house but like a mirage it quickly disappears as we have only found a wrong number. We are once again in a dark street searching for the address without any flashlight to guide our way. The location even seems to change from moment to moment and from day to day.

Even when we find the right house the drapes may be drawn or we may be allowed only into the living room. This room often presents a nice brocade complete with comfortable furniture. We may never get a look at the attic or the dark cellar. Some rooms are locked away from public view, the windows all boarded up. Many people preserve the facade of a comfortable life without conflict or problems. These people dodge any effort to get to know them as real human beings. In trying to understand such an individual we must continue searching until we have found the right house and made a real psychological contact with that other person. This diligent searching calls forth total attention and is extremely tiring but at the same time can be extremely rewarding.

No address, no directions to guide
And still you searched,
What did you hope to find?
A room of comfort and brocade?

Up one lane and down another,
Blind alleys and past the gutter
You asked for directions
I gave you none
And still you searched

At last you paused
I knew you had come
The drapes were drawn
The door was bolted
You knocked
I froze
You knocked once more
With sweaty brow I opened the door
You entered my rooms, my attic, my cellar
Was it worth the search, my friend?

You stayed in my house
Wiped the sweat from my brow
We talked—we touched
We planted a seed and watched it grow
We named it "Trust"
And then you left,
You had to go
But, my friend, I still have the plant
we grew.

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Economic survival for counselors: differentiated staffing

GERALD W. CARSON

There are counselors who oppose the concept of differential staffing, or the use of aides in secondary school counseling offices. In this article the author reviews some of the stated objections, provides some remarks in rebuttal, and gives some of the unstated reasons for the concept's lack of acceptance among practicing secondary school counselors.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association (1972) has viewed with understandable alarm the recent school budget cuts affecting pupil services. These cuts seem to threaten the very survival of counseling. Should counselors now wring their hands in alarm? Or should they realistically review their own professional "house" for alternate, less expensive methods of operation? If educational, social, vocational, and personal problem solving help can be provided by new methods at a reduced cost, counselors should seriously consider such methods. The use of paraprofessionals, or differential staffing, is one possible means of providing the same basic counseling and allied services that have been provided—perhaps more efficiently, and certainly at a reduced cost.

Is the use of paraprofessionals in the guidance office a worthy change to consider? Schools in Detroit, Ithaca, and Philadelphia, to name only a few, have instituted programs using helping personnel in pupil services. A very complete summary and commentary on such programs, as well as a thorough bibliography, has been compiled by Zimpfer, Salim, Frederickson, and Sanford (1971). A review of the literature is not offered here; the purpose of this article is rather to review and comment on arguments and objections to differential staffing that have been made by practitioners in the field.

A discussion of the various possible forms of differential staffing is not necessary here. Suffice it to state that in a differentially staffed office clerical personnel would perform all clerical functions in keeping with their training and ability. An information specialist or aide would conduct educational-vocational information dissemination programs. Counselors would perform counseling functions only. The student-counselor ratio in such a structure could be approximately 700 to 1. The number of highly paid counselors would be reduced, while the number of lesser paid clerical personnel would be increased.

The advantages of differential staffing are (a) maximum use of professional training and experience; (b) higher morale among professional staff; (c) more effective use of all personnel; and

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(d) economy of operation through reduced salary costs for the total staff.

OBJECTIONS TO DIFFERENTIAL STAFFING

Objections from practitioners can be broken down into three categories: student needs, preparation of aides, and organization.

Student Needs

Concerns about handling affective needs of students are indicated by such comments from counselors as, "Guidance counselors cannot function like medical specialists. There is a personal, emotional feeling involved when a student asks for help that could not be referred by a registrar or information specialist without danger of turning off the student." Another objection is that the student might be asking about selecting a college when what he is really seeking is a warm, friendly person to relate to.

Even without differential staffing, referrals are made to the counselor by teachers, principals, etc. The process of referral would in no way change because of a differentially staffed office. If a student approached the information specialist concerning a personal problem, the specialist would discuss the contact with the counselor. The counselor could either contact the student directly or act as a consultant to the information specialist, who would continue his contact with the student should it appear that the student could not be referred. It goes without saying that either teacher or specialist would maintain close contact with the counselor and apprise him of all affective as well as cognitive behavior he observed while working with the student. Certainly it would be best if the counselor were able to establish direct counseling contact, but, as teachers, coaches, and custodians do at present, specialists could make referrals carefully and successfully when necessary.

This process of referral is similar to that proposed by Trump and Georgiades

(1970). They suggest that the teacher act as the student's educational manager to register, schedule, and maintain records of achievement. Counseling would be referred to the counselor. The information specialist could function similarly by referring counseling problems to counselors.

There can be no disputing that a student may be seeking, unconsciously or consciously, a warm, personal relationship—even though he opens the conversation with, "I just want to find a college with a good course in agriculture." Such personal qualities as friendliness and acceptance are not necessarily learned in graduate school alone. Why is it assumed that an information specialist, or even a custodian, could not be blessed with these attributes? As Frederickson and Vigneault (1971) indicated, an aide or information specialist may be as capable of providing a warm, human relationship as any counselor—maybe more capable than some. I would estimate that at this time, with student-counselor ratios of 350 to 1, fewer than half the students seeking advice on personal-social problems go to a counselor for help. The point is that the myth of total utilization of counselor time by all assigned counselees must be abandoned in favor of reality; i.e., students seek help in personal-social problem solving also among coaches, custodians, teachers, and others. The information specialist may well serve as an additional available contact for students.

Preparation of Aides: Training and Certification

What about training and certification for aides? Some say, "The aide would make mistakes because of a lack of proper training," or, "Without certification standards for aides, we would be flooded with untrained people trying to do the counselor's job." If an ordinary professional—even one with a doctorate—makes an occasional mistake, aides can be expected to do no better. The school would have to spend a certain amount of

time in training and preparing an information specialist. This could be inservice and would be for the particular school system; the training would therefore meet the needs of the specific school.

As for certification, how valid is it as a guarantee of competence? It would be difficult to establish that Christ was a certified preacher in a particular faith, yet the effects of his uncertified efforts seem to be laudable both in character and lasting effect. Certainly standards would be needed for aides. These requirements could be determined as the position and its duties become established through practice. Certification standards for the information specialist should not be determined as much by an either-before-or-not-at-all approach as by a try-and-see-what-is-needed approach.

There is an unfortunate fact we must acknowledge. Even with current certification standards for counselors, principals, and other school personnel, we are all too frequently confronted with "political friends" in positions of power and responsibility.

Organizational Problems

The last category of objections is administrative in nature. "What would be the counselor's job?" "Who would be fired?" "Students would be confused by new roles." "What we need are more counselors, not fewer." Then, of course, the coup de grace: "Those records are *my* responsibility. No uncertified aide is going to foul them up!"

It is not mandatory to begin implementation of differential staffing by the wholesale dismissal of counselors. Each year counselors are being transferred, retiring, or taking maternity leave. With a program planned and ready for implementation, the system would be available when a vacancy arose.

If a clerk does clerical work, a registrar maintains records, and an aide conducts vocational-educational information programs, what would a counselor do? The counselor would counsel. Frederickson and Vigneault made a good point about tasks for the counselor:

The counselor's services are badly needed to help in other critical problem areas, such as drugs, racism, curriculum and institutional change. There are not enough well-qualified counselors available [1971, p. 2].

The counseling office may be responsible for record keeping. This does not mean that the counselor is the only one who is capable of or should be allowed to do the job. If the counselor is responsible for seeing that grades are entered on a record card, a registrar or clerk could do the entering. The principal is responsible for the health conditions in his building, but he does not personally scrub the lavatory daily. Any person having the physical and mental capacity for the necessary clerical tasks could perform them. If a counselor is not involved in record keeping, catalog interpretations, etc., he could spend 100 percent of his time in counseling functions, thus providing increased counseling contacts even with a student-counselor ratio of 700 to 1.

Confusion of roles is an objection without foundation; the aide would pose no threat to the counselor. The aide in a differentially staffed office would not be a replacement for the counselor; he would be merely an assistant to provide a necessary specialized service to the students.

Don't we need more counselors? How about a different question: Is the ideal student-counselor ratio based on current practice, or is it based on the ideal counselor role? I contend that it is based on what is happening now in schools. If the counselor functions in a guidance capacity, i.e., entering grades on records, administering tests, preparing transcripts, and counseling in his spare time, then a 100 to 1 ratio is indeed necessary. That increased student contact with counselors does take place where aides are used is borne out by Frederickson and Vigneault (1971). The problem is not the number of counselors in the schools but the current functions of those counselors. There

is more than a semantic difference between guidance counselors and counselors.

"I'm not going to let some aide foul up *my* records." In a differentially staffed office where record keeping is clearly delegated to a registrar and counseling to a counselor, this objection would not exist. The counselor simply would not be in the record business. The choice for a counselor who has a need to keep records would be to practice counseling or become a registrar—or go into the classroom.

UNSTATED ARGUMENTS

It is likely that there are more arguments against differential staffing than I have mentioned. There are other objections that usually remain unstated but that may represent the true feelings of many opponents of differential staffing.

"Turning over part of my job, as I now practice it, to a less qualified person is threatening." If indeed a high school graduate or even an associate arts degree holder can do part of what the counselor now does, then the counselor has been overpaid for years.

"Personal-social counseling is non-statistical and offers no accountability. It makes the other teachers think I'm loafing by just talking to a few students at a time." If the counselor does not take students out of class for standardized testing, does not come into the teacher's class to present programs on college selection, or does not "wag his finger" at failing students, his value may be suspect. But I believe that the results of effective counseling would soon evidence themselves. If the counselor were freed of guidance trivia, he could undertake more effective counseling with more students.

"The principal is constantly assigning new duties to the guidance office. I can't find more time for counseling because I have to do what he directs." This is similar to Berne's (1964) description of a transactional game called "What do you

expect of a man with a wooden leg?" Its translation would seem to be: "I would be a good counselor, but that mean principal doesn't let me. What can I do with such a handicap?" An "adult" response would seem to be the counselor's presenting himself as a professional with a particular level of training and expertise who can better serve the principal and the students by using that training and expertise. Clerical functions could best be performed by professional clerks who use their training and expertise. The right training for the right job: differential staffing.

CONCLUSIONS

Arbuckle (1969) posed a question relative to the counselor's performance of various assigned tasks that easily applies to guidance trivia. He asked:

Have you accepted this as your professional responsibility, are you capable of performing this function effectively, and does this function clash with, and thus render you less effective in other functions that you have also accepted as your professional responsibility [p. 164]?

He suggests an answer:

He should accept as professional functions only those that do not clash with each other, and thus render his effective operation as a counselor impossible [p. 169].

The problem seems to be not what counselors are forced to do as much as what they do of their own volition. In a previous study by this author (Carson 1971) it was found that 80.4 percent of the counselors surveyed saw their proper role to be keepers of records, dispensers of information, and providers of answers.

Counselors can seriously threaten their continued survival by being expensive, ambiguous adjuncts. Or they can, as an alternative, realistically view their role and its function in a differentially staffed setting and present to economy-minded boards of education a sound, practical way of providing even better pupil services at a reduced staff cost.

There can be no better public relations in a period of tight money than counselors' saying, "We too are concerned with rising school costs. We think differential staffing will help the budget while improving the helping services for our students." ■

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JOURNEY

I.

Driving home, in a fog,
Alone. Surrounded by an impregnable
Wall of mist which hides the blackened sky.
The once-warm rain
Turned suddenly into cold sleet
Beats relentlessly against the glass
Thru which, eyestrained, I try to peer
    and find my way.
Icy fear grips my being as dimmed lights
    thought far away
In suddenness strike at me, blinding my vision
    for instants, again and again.
Frightening moments, as the car I fight to control
    leaves the road.
Then, the thin white line of the highway
Catches my eye to guide me back
To the road I travel once more
    at a snail's pace.
Tiring, I fight to resist
Being lulled into enticing sleep
By the rhythmic beat of the sleet.
Torrents of wetness are thrown at me
As impatient drivers, more confident than I,
    pass me by.
My bones are chilled and I am comforted
Only by the warmth of the heater on my feet
    as I silently pray:
Help me continue my way
    in the fog.
For I am
Driving home.

II.

Becoming, in a fog,
Alone. Surrounded by a thick self-made
Wall which hides my darkened soul.
The once-warm senses
Turned suddenly into cold daggers
Jab relentlessly at my mirrors of self
Thru which, eyestrained, I try to peer
    and find my way.
Icy fear grips my heart as hidden memories
    thought permanently forgotten
In suddenness strike at me, blinding my vision
    for instants, again and again.
Frightening moments, as emotions I fight to control
    erupt.
Then, the thin thread of reality
Catches at me to guide me back
To the road I travel once more
    at a snail's pace.
Tiring, I fight to resist
Being lulled into enticing apathy
By the pulsating beat of my wounds.
Torrents of self-pity engulf me
As comrades in life, more confident than I,
    pass me by.
My bones are chilled and I am comforted
Only by the warmth of a friend's hand in mine
    as I silently pray:
Help me continue my way
    in the fog.
For I am
Becoming.

Helen C. Roberts, graduate student
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Why I like Gestalt therapy, as a hole

MARVIN CARSON ROTH

In the emotionally intense setting of a weekend encounter group, dramatic experiences and insights often take place. However, the ultimate benefits or enduring effects of specific episodes are difficult to assess. In the absence of tangible, long-range tokens of positive change, group facilitators may create their rewards by rationalizing the results of their own manipulations. Based on his experience, the author reflects on how a facilitator's desire to be facilitative may obscure the line between wishful thinking and common sense.

[Editor's Note: Readers sometimes assume that everything in a professional journal is to be taken at face value. Be cautioned that sometimes an author's tongue is in his cheek.]

The purpose of this article is to assist me by clarifying the theoretical rationale for what I see happening in encounter groups. Within the framework of Gestalt therapy, I hope this article will restore my own confidence in what I do as a facilitator, provide a rationale to convince skeptics, prepare me for oral exams, and demonstrate my competence to my supervisor. Also, many times during group sessions participants want reassurance that what I am doing is based on good theory, so this article should better equip me to answer such inquiries with

confidence and professional competence.

In this article I plan to be spontaneous and write about whatever confusions I have that I think or feel could be straightened out by either science or intuition. Perls said that objectivity does not exist, and that's the truth. So whatever I sort out will be subjectively supported by science and the reality of my own subjectivity.

Now that I've perfectly clarified my approach, for the remainder of the article I would like to keep in touch with my own awareness continuum and just report my thoughts as they occur in the here and now. My first thought is that I would like to reflect upon how a group should be designed to maximize growth. My next thoughts will probably be about how certain individuals may benefit from the group experience. Then I'd like to give an unbiased, intuitive report of my success rate.

LEADING PEOPLE TO SELF-GROWTH

First, I share Perls' objection regarding the use of programs, techniques, manipulations, and interpretations to facilitate growth. Rather than structuring or planning, I plan to take the person wherever he is choosing to go. With added experience, I am finding it easier to anticipate where he is going and, by strategic questioning, follow him there. One place he usually leads me to is an area that he

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consistently avoids. Then it's usually a matter of encouraging him just to be aware of whatever is going on at that moment. While he is being aware of himself at that time, I am often aware of something about him that he is not aware of, and I realize that he would be better off being aware of what he isn't aware of. So I tell him about my awareness of what he isn't aware of—maybe it's his trembling finger—and he then becomes aware of it on his own merely by my pointing it out to him.

I like the way Gestalt therapy simplifies the concept of growth. Growth is the central goal for the group. Growth implies becoming, which connotes change from something into something somehow different. If an organism is stagnant, it is not growing. In order to grow, one must accept what one is. Most people have a lot of trouble here, since they tend to try to live up to expectations. However, when one finally comes to the point where he is satisfied with what he is, he grows and becomes different from that which he was satisfied with. Now his problem is to be satisfied with what he has become.

Also, growth must happen without your trying. When you try, you exert effort to change your attitude toward yourself and are not accepting yourself as you are, that is, as a person with a bad attitude toward himself. But if you accept your bad attitude toward yourself, you are at an impasse and not growing. So don't try, I tell people. Perls said that trying is an admission of defeat. When we try, we always fail. Just be what you are and choose to accept your being for what it is. It's that simple. So cooperate with me, I advise people. Go into the areas you are fearfully avoiding rather than taking the easy way out. You're here to work, I say. It takes energy to do what you normally avoid, to reown parts of yourself, to forgive your parents; so if you can do all this without trying, you've got it made.

HOW EVERYONE CAN BENEFIT

I am aware that my thoughts are now drifting to my second topic, which I plan will be a discussion of how certain individuals may benefit from the group experience.

I find that groups are a good place to deal with phonies. Perls said that most of the population is neurotic, and one of the neurotic layers is phoniness. Phoniness implies trying to be something that you are not. Phonies are pretenders. That's what they really are. So if they're being what they really are, then they're being phony. In order for such people to become integrated, they must apply energy to drop the facade that is taking up their energy. Then they can be what they really are rather than being phony.

I've had some trouble with the helpless types. They have no minds of their own. They let themselves be the products of everyone else's wishes. They can't say no. What they need to do is to be able to get into what they are avoiding—that is, being themselves—and take a stand against always complying with the wishes of others. But every time I encourage them to go around the room and say no to people, they become afraid and claim they can't do it. They refuse to cooperate with me and often become stubborn. They don't seem to realize that they'll never have minds of their own and be able to do what they want rather than what others want unless they cooperate and do what I want them to do.

The people who are usually the most out of touch with their feelings and the least sensitive to the demands of their organisms are the intellectualizers. Their minds rule their lives. All their energy is tied up in thinking. They play the fitting game. They explain everything. I have the most trouble with these people. When I give them an explanation of what happens to people who intellectualize, it doesn't have any impact because they won't try on the explanation to see

if it fits. They ignore it because it doesn't make them feel good, and they always act according to their feelings instead of using their heads.

Then there are the people pleasers. They are the easiest to help. They make every other person their judge, their yardstick of their own worth. They depend on approval for their own self-esteem. So to get approval they try hard to be nice and please everybody. Inevitably, in the groups I run, these types annoy people. People dislike this niceness, this withholding of negatives in order to be liked. They encourage the people pleaser to say something negative, to be not nice to people, to express some hostility. So he does, thus pleasing everybody, and by pleasing everybody he builds up his own self-esteem and is cured. But sometimes I feel bad after this because I don't like to see the group manipulate someone.

The group can be quite a threatening place for the quiet girl. There's always a quiet girl, and there's always a loudmouthed shnook who butts in and draws the attention of the group to himself by drawing the attention of the group to her. And she's embarrassed. She doesn't want all this attention. She has the right not to be in the spotlight. She doesn't have to meet the group's expectations to talk more. She says she wants the spotlight shifted away from her. I respect her choice. She says she's always felt that way, that she doesn't like people focusing on her. She talks about her self-consciousness. Everybody cooperates. We move on to someone else. She feels better and shares her feelings with the group. She feels so good that the attention is off her that she cries. The whole group comforts her and makes her feel good by making her the center of attention. Much later she is blowing her nose and discarding her 27th tissue, sputtering with laughter and tears at the same time. All is well, except that she feels bad about having been the center of attention for two and a half hours.

EVERYTHING I DO WORKS

I am now aware of an emerging need to go on to the third issue, which I call an unbiased, intuitive report of my success rate. During the past eight months, in which I've participated as a leader in 11 intrapersonal human relations training groups, I have found that everything I do works. I have no group casualties. It seems that a number of the participants are now in a state of positive disintegration and are therefore feeling worse now than before they went into the group. These are the ones I feel best about, since they likely got no support for their neurotic manipulations in the group. Perls said that maturity means self-support, so if they got no support from the group and had their defensive manipulations shot down, their only recourse was realistic self-support, or maturity. So if someone leaves my group feeling shattered, I put complete faith in the wisdom of the organism to heal all wounds and then grow without outside interference.

Also, if someone who has been in my group is now having a psychotic breakdown, that's good, because he was likely headed there anyway; I just helped speed up the process, since the sooner he got into it, the sooner he could get over it. Besides, having a psychotic breakdown was his choice. I warned them all about their own responsibilities.

I appreciate hearing success reports regarding people who have grown so much in my labs that they are no longer satisfied with the dehumanizing routine of their work, city life, and schedules. It's a sure sign of growth when they leave home and country for greater and more wonderful things.

I often meet people who have been participants in one or more of my groups. I am very pleased with every one of them. I hear people reaching out toward me, taking initiative. That's what I hoped would happen. They ask me how I am.

Some of them are so turned on to their existence that they are even aware of and appreciate such mundane things as the weather. And I'm pleased with the ones who avoid me or say nothing. They have no need for my approval or support. They have now matured. I also appreciate those who have grown beyond small talk such as "How are you?" and "Nice day!" They are now in touch with their centers and have dropped what Gestalt therapy recognizes as the cliché part of the neurotic layer.

There may have been a few that left the group with hostility. That's a token of success that I depend on, since it's a sure sign that they have gotten on to something. This assures me that I have skillfully frustrated them so that they are no longer able to continue avoiding being themselves.

AN OBJECTIVE CONCLUSION

In considering what I have written here, I feel that I have accomplished my intended purpose of clarifying my theoretical rationale and demonstrating the effectiveness of my approach. I feel better prepared to continue my war against neurotic behavior, which I see as self-defeating and inadequate in terms of achieving the desired end. The neurotic rationalizes to convince himself that his behavior was adequate and that the effects are the desired effects. Sometimes I like to examine my therapeutic endeavors, as I have just done, to reassure myself that I am not doing neurotic therapy. ∎

TO THE PERSON SITTING ACROSS FROM ME IN MY OFFICE . . .
TO THE THIRTY IN FRONT OF ME IN MY CLASSROOM . . .

We are separated
  By a title
    (and a few years)
  By a few mistakes
    (not yet made by you).

We are united
  By the world we see
    (through equally concerned eyes)
  By the way we feel
    (in our own moments
      of solitude
      despair
      anger
      grief
      and joy).

And so we must talk
    (and not avert our eyes and say
    small things about the weather)

    of life and death
    of hope and despair
    of love and hate.

Seeing the world in our lives
    our life in the world.

Touching, at least for a moment, our common chords.

Marlene C. Morgan
Counsellor, Kensington Junior Secondary School
Burnaby (British Columbia), Canada

APGA Executive Director's Report

1 May 1972—30 April 1972

The Association year 1971–72 marked a period of significant change for APGA: New professional programs were instituted that signaled a revitalization of member interest in the affairs of the Association, and the Association found a new chief executive who is expected to redirect headquarters staff energies toward a five-year goal of planned growth in professional services for the Association's nearly 28,500 members.

The search for a new APGA executive director began at the APGA Board of Directors meeting held 28–30 December 1971, when Willis E. Dugan requested and received an early retirement for reasons of health, thus vacating the post he had held for six years. In recognition of his service to the Association and his participation in its affairs for nearly 20 years, Dr. Dugan was named Executive Director Emeritus, the first time in APGA's history such a distinctive honor has been accorded.

The APGA Board of Directors, during that December meeting, appointed Patrick J. McDonough, Assistant Executive Director for Professional Affairs, to fill the chief executive post on an interim basis until such time as a new executive director was named. A search committee was also formed, under the chairmanship of then-APGA President Garry R. Walz, to determine from among a number of candidates who would best measure up to the demands of the office.

The recommendation of the search committee was approved by the APGA Board of Directors on 23 June 1972; Charles L. Lewis became the Association's fifth full-time executive director in APGA's 20-year history. Dr. Lewis was a research associate and assistant to the president at Pennsylvania State University, where he also served in the capacity of vice president for student affairs for four years. He is well versed in Association activities through his service as president of the American College Personnel Association (1969–70) and his participation on the governing and publications boards of ACPA and APGA. Dr. Lewis commenced his three-year term of office on 28 August 1972.

Due to the transition in Association leadership, the following report is principally a summary of one delivered by Dr. McDonough, then Acting Executive Director, to the APGA Senate on 26 March 1972. The report is preceded by a brief message from Dr. Lewis.

I welcome this opportunity to serve the counseling and guidance profession and pledge as part of my administration of the office of executive director that the Association will continue to provide a visible national impact on the profession by articulating its concerns as well as implementing the goals expressed in the charter of this important national organization. The future direction of the Association will be charted and reported to you in the coming months; in the meantime, I believe the continuity of a report from this office must be maintained, and I have thus requested that such a document be published in the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL. *Its author, Patrick J. McDonough, deserves our appreciation for having served in a leadership capacity*

during difficult times and ensuring a continuity of Association programs.— Charles L. Lewis

The past year can be described as one reflective of change with promising fortunes for your Association. The first six months of the year were entered with much promise and many plans and programs for Association resurgence. Unfortunately, unpredictable elements— especially the institution of a wage-price freeze—coalesced to cause projected APGA income to be much less than expected for the full year. The APGA Board of Directors, in the interest of providing optimum service even with a reduced professional and support headquarters staff, was compelled to project a $44,940 deficit budget for the year. This budget was projected with the proviso that it be balanced in the Association year 1972–73.

On 1 January 1972 Willis E. Dugan, APGA's executive director of the past six years, retired. As he was our friend and mentor, we on the staff will miss Bill Dugan for his leadership, objectivity, intelligence, and sharp wit. As an APGA guidance and counseling professional, I know that all guidance and counseling workers throughout the United States will miss his willingness to share with them his stimulating ideas. In appreciation of and in fitting tribute to Dr. Dugan's contribution to APGA over the Association's 20-year history, the Chicago Convention program of 1972 was dedicated to him.

GOVERNANCE

The APGA Task Force on Reorganization and the APGA By-Laws Committee worked diligently the past year to prepare a report that proposed a new organizational structure for APGA. The "Modified Commission Model," which Task Force Chairman Glenn Fear proposed

and which was adopted in material respects by the Chicago Convention Senators in a 15 August 1972 mail ballot, blended major elements of the Commission on Human Development Services (CHDS) model and the Branch or Unitary Model. Emphases were on (a) representativeness—through the recognition of the unique contributions of state branches and national divisions and through appropriate participation of each on the board of directors; (b) unity and solidarity—through a unified dues structure and unity of membership; (c) logistical and technical support—through a paid central office staff and predictable income for budget; (d) professional focus —through a more appropriate definition of Association purposes and through a professional body (APGA Professional Council of Representatives) to identify issues and establish professional priorities; and (e) refined governance—through redirection of energies of state branch and national division organizations to problems and topics that fall within either some particular geographic area or some special professional interest.

PROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS

During the past year many new and stimulating professional programs were initiated or came to fruition. Principal among these were the following: a cassette series, field seminars, a legislative intern program, the National Career Information Center, a certification survey and analysis, a library and information service, and Office of Non-White Concerns and human rights activities and programs.

Cassette Series

The APGA cassette series *Counseling: Today and Tomorrow* moved into final production during the Chicago Convention. Originally 25 priority professional topics were identified that reflected the entire spectrum of current guidance and

counseling issues. Demonstration tapes were received from 14 contributors. An APGA review committee was selected, which subsequently evaluated the tapes. The committee's response to the demonstration tapes was overwhelmingly enthusiastic and favorable. Among the contributors and their topics for this first series were: Dugald S. Arbuckle, "Existential Counseling"; George M. Gazda, "Group Procedures"; and Eli Ginzberg, "Career Guidance."

Field Seminars

With the support of the APGA Board of Directors and the financial backing of APGA, a program of field-based and organized professional seminars was instituted during the year. The plan involved (a) the identification of a crucial professional topic or topics by members; (b) the organization in local settings of a seminar topic, site, and date; and (c) the communication of this program's availability to local or regional groups within APGA. There was a threefold purpose in this new program:

1. Giving members the opportunity to delineate a topic that concerned them in their local professional or work settings.

2. Bringing the Association closer to the membership to stimulate membership and promote member involvement.

3. Providing local host groups, state branches, etc., with 50 percent of any profits, at no local risk, to strengthen local organizational units.

Field Seminar I, "The Effective Ingredients of Human Development," was held in Virginia Beach, Virginia, 11–13 February 1972. Robert Carkhuff was the principal resource speaker, and small group activity was supplied through the volunteer efforts of group facilitators James Beck (Florida A&M University), Jack Duncan (Virginia Commonwealth University), George Gazda (University of Georgia), Laurabeth Hicks (Southern University), and Robert Maidment (The College of William and Mary). Helen Jones, APGA board member, and Rex Tillotson (The College of William and Mary) served as co-chairmen. Sixty-eight paid participants attended the first seminar, with 20 attendees being nonmembers.

Other field seminars are planned for the Midwest and the West.

Legislative Intern Program

The Legislative Intern Program, established this year, is a first for APGA. It provides APGA with a direct link to the U.S. House of Representatives Education and Labor Committee through the services of our intern and APGA member, Jack Thorsen, who works on Capitol Hill. This program is jointly financed and sponsored by APGA, the Washington Internships in Education program (Ford Foundation), and Congressman Marvin Esch (R-Mich.). Dr. Thorsen's contributions to APGA and his guidance point of view have done much to awaken Congress to the needs of guidance and counseling.

National Career Information Center

As a follow-up of the APGA initiated and U.S. Office of Education (USOE) financed National Center for Information on Careers in Education, Center Director Frank Burtnett, at the winter meeting of the APGA Board of Directors, proposed a National Career Information Center (NCIC) to provide a quality service for the career information field— one that schools, colleges, and counseling agencies and centers have long needed and have been asking for. NCIC will still provide information on careers in education until monies lapse from USOE sources. In addition, information on a series of other careers will be identified, evaluated, and collected into a series of timely career information newsletters and career resource bibliographies. These

services formally began in August 1972. APGA members are again being given preferential treatment in subscribing to this new service.

Certification Study

The staff, at the suggestion of the APGA Board of Directors, initiated a survey of certification standards in the 50 states. This type of report, previously done by the USOE but discontinued in 1968, will analyze existing counseling certification requirements in each state, assess existing research on the topic, point out trends, and offer recommendations on the certification issue. A report of this study was made available to all APGA Senators at the Chicago 1972 Senate meeting.

Library and Information Service

An expanded and very valuable, but frequently unmentioned, membership service that increasingly meets a host of member needs is APGA's library and information service, under the capable direction of APGA staffer Adelaide Siegel. During the past year, she and her secretary have received 6,311 letters and 1,166 telephone requests for information from throughout the United States, Canada, and Europe. Responding to these requests has entailed their developing and preparing short topical bibliographies, disseminating APGA materials and membership information, answering specific research and technical questions, and providing general information about the Association and the profession. In addition, the APGA library continues the work of backstopping and cataloging materials for NVGA's Career Information Review Service.

Office of Non-White Concerns

Several significant and historic documents were developed this past year through the efforts of Paul Collins, Executive Assistant for APGA and Director of the Office of Non-White Concerns. These included the preparation of guidelines for visita- tion teams to convention cities and the preparation of grievance procedures and guidelines for the operation of the Human Rights Commission. In addition, the office has (a) assisted the Non-White Caucus in the development of a set of by-laws for the proposed Association for Minority Concerns in Guidance and Counseling,[1] (b) conducted a national survey to estimate support of a minority concerns division, (c) established a network of human rights contacts in each state, and (d) conducted five organizational and content workshops in the area of human rights.

MULTIMEDIA SERVICES

The status of any professional organization resides in the quality of its publications. During the past year the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, under the leadership of Editor Leo Goldman, demonstrated anew that Special Issues are both popular with and informative to the APGA membership. Recent Special Issues included: "Culture as a Reason for Being" (October 1971); "Ethical Practice: Preserving Human Dignity" (December 1971); the JOURNAL's 50th anniversary issue (February 1972); and the May 1972 issue on the mutual growth of counselee and counselor.

Besides the P&G JOURNAL and the 10 professional divisional journals on regular publication schedules—many with new designs, formats, and editors—APGA increased its single titles offerings to membership during 1971–72. Among the new titles are: *Program Summaries and Abstracts and Research Reports: 1972 Convention; Support Personnel in School Guidance Programs; Financial Aid for Guidance and Personnel Graduate Study, 1972–73; Perspectives on Vocational Development; Guidelines for the Prepara-*

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[1] The Association for Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance was granted APGA affiliation during the 1972 Chicago Convention.

tion and Evaluation of Career Guidance Media; Student Development in Tomorrow's Higher Education: A Return to the Academy; and *The Maturity of Vocational Attitudes in Adolescence.*

All in all, the publications picture and the outlook for subscriptions to APGA and divisional journals is again on the upswing, after a short period of decline in summer and early fall due to the price freeze on proposed subscription fee increases and a depressed, budget-conscious national economic picture.

The newly instituted WERC (*Why Not Enjoy Rewarding Careers?*) film series and the *Distinguished Contributors to Counseling* film series continue to enjoy increasing success. Income from both of these relatively new but successful APGA services will probably exceed predicted expenses.

CONVENTION PLANNING

Many innovations were introduced into the 1972 Chicago Convention under the leadership of President Garry Walz and Convention Coordinator Steve Horvath. A box lunch benefit banquet for local Chicago-based charities, community outreach programs, and an array of speakers on many topics accentuated the Chicago Convention theme of "Involved for Human Development." There were 622 sessions scheduled—348 content and 274 ancillary; there were 30 professional convention programs taped and made available for sale; and there were 143 exhibit booths sold, with an additional 19 booths reserved for services provided by APGA and affiliates.

During 1973 APGA will hold its national convention in San Diego, California, February 9–12. Two others, regional conventions, will also be staged in 1973—in St. Louis, Missouri, April 15–19 and Atlanta, Georgia, May 23–27. The theme for all conventions in 1973 is "Proactivity: The *Now* Imperative." Coordinators for all three 1973 conventions have

been named: San Diego—Altha Williams of La Mesa, California; St. Louis—Marlin Jackoway of Maryland, Missouri; Atlanta—Louis Shilling of Atlanta, Georgia. Convention sites have also been picked for 1974 (New Orleans), 1975 (New York), 1976 (regional conventions), 1977 (Dallas), 1978 (Washington, D.C.), 1979 (regional conventions), and 1980 (Anaheim, California).

MEMBERSHIP

The membership picture continues to brighten. During the period of spring 1971 to fall 1971, membership was suffering some reverses. As of 1 March 1972, APGA membership stands at 27,487, or an increase of 409 over APGA's membership on 1 March 1971. The two new membership categories, sustaining members and supporting members, proposed to and accepted by the Chicago Senate, also afford new dimensions to income derived from membership. A unified dues structure, including state branches as well as national divisions, may further increase income derived from these sources.

DIVISIONAL AND BRANCH ACTIVITY

A decrease in multiple division memberships seems to mirror the general economic picture associated with national recessions: tight economy and establishing of priorities. The larger divisions, particularly ASCA, NVGA, and ACPA, have the reserves and membership income to sustain themselves, even in non-peak years or during times of expansion of professional programs, when, for a time, expenses offset income. Smaller divisions need more emphasis on membership recruitment, income-generating but selective committee activity, and close financial overseeing of budget projections and expenditures.

State branches throughout the country have, in general, experienced another

year of substantial growth. More state branch officers and members attended the four regional workshops than in any previous period. APGA officers and headquarters staff participated in these workshops to a greater extent than ever before. Presidential addresses, human rights and federal relations workshops, and informal give-and-take sessions were standard operating procedures in all workshops. The ROOTS (Regional Offices to Serve) Task Force spent much time at meetings within and outside of the branch regional workshops, gathering and synthesizing data about the feasibility of opening regional offices in four different sectors of the United States. A report of the ROOTS Task Force was presented to the APGA Board of Directors at the New Orleans board meeting, 28–30 December 1971. The report was tabled because more financial data was needed. The board of directors plans to review the feasibility of ROOTS at its June 1972 meeting.—*Patrick J. McDonough*

Counseling Asian-Americans

Special Feature Coming in February

Cultural values dictating against self-assertion and open expression of thoughts and feelings to "outsiders" have contributed to the image of Asian-Americans as "the most silent majority." The quiet Americans. The "model" minority.

The articles in the February Special Feature section of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL represent a collaborative effort of Asian-Americans to reveal how certain cultural values and the forces of racism have served to shape and define their life styles. Colin Watanabe writes on "Self-Expression and the Asian-American Experience"; George Kagiwada and Isao Fujimoto on the implications for education of Asian-American studies; Edward Kaneshige on "Cultural Factors in Group Counseling and Interaction"; Maximo J. Callao on "Culture Shock—West, East, and West Again."

Guest editor Derald Wing Sue presents these articles to provide counselors with a greater understanding of the Asian experience in America and its implications for counseling.

In the Field

*Reports of
programs, practices, or
techniques*

Integration of Medical and Counseling Services

RICHARD K. SCHWARTZ

Medical doctors and psychological counselors frequently have difficulty pooling their respective professional skills to solve human problems. Professional suspicions and jealousies, or just poor communication, frequently interfere with cooperative efforts between these two groups. This article describes a program at a small college in which professionals from the medical and psychological specialties are attempting to work as a team.

Although the program is not unique, it is innovative in the special blend of staff who are working together to promote physical and mental health on a college campus. Specifically, the medical and counseling services at this small college are attempting to develop a resource center to which the campus community may come for emotional and medical assistance. The center is being developed at Willamette University, a small, private, residential campus of less than 2,000 students. I have recently completed my first year as a psychologist for the campus; this was the first year the institution provided a full-time professional counseling position. This is not to say that counseling did not previously occur on the campus; the school has a large proportion of faculty

members who take a personal interest in the total development of students and a number of administrative staff members with the professional training and the personal sensitivity to provide for some of the counseling needs of students.

The campus health service in particular has a tradition of assisting students who need help. It has a good physical facility including 14 hospital beds, examining rooms and offices, and a staff of two medical doctors who work part time and three nurses who work full time. The nurses are on duty during the daytime hours Monday through Friday, and the doctors are present several hours each day. A night nurse is on duty the rest of the 24 hours, including weekends. With the 24-hour coverage, crisis situations can be handled and referred to appropriate resources. For example, calls regarding serious illnesses, injuries, bad drug trips, and suicide threats have been channeled to the health or emergency room of the city hospital or to one of the health

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center team members, or the night nurse would handle the situation herself if appropriate. In addition to the on-campus health service staff, a consulting psychiatrist is available for referrals and consultation.

Although many counseling needs were being met by the health service and other faculty and staff members, the position of director of counseling services was established to provide for coordination of counseling activities and to provide leadership in the development of a mental health program for the campus. To increase the probability of the development of a medical and counseling team, the director of counseling services was given an office adjacent to the medical personnel in the health center.

The disadvantages of placing the counselor with the medical staff were carefully considered. Some felt this location might emphasize the traditional and somewhat isolated role of a counselor in an office, doing one-to-one counseling all day long. In addition, it might emphasize illness and serious problems over preventive programs and positive emotional growth. Students might be less likely to use counseling for solving normal developmental problems and might not seek help until they were emotionally incapacitated. This would be exactly the opposite of the desired outcome, since the plan of the mental health program was to minimize the traditional one-to-one crisis counseling role and maximize the availability of the counselor as a resource person for the entire campus community. With due consideration given to the risk of the counselor's becoming only a therapist, the counselor was added to the health service staff so that a professional team might evolve that included medical and counseling services.

As a result, a total health resource center did evolve in the first year of operation. The addition of the counselor to the staff expanded an already effective health service. Interaction, referral, and consultation occurred regularly between the counselor and medical staff. The following examples clarify some of the interaction that occurred. The implication of all this interaction is that students received improved services through the total health resource center.

INTERACTIONS IN THE CENTER

Referral from Counselor to Medical Doctor. Emotional problems often are associated with physical symptoms. The emotional state may be a cause or effect of the physical symptom, but any cases with such symptoms were referred by the counselor for medical attention. Referrals were also made for contraceptive information, medication to alleviate symptoms of tension, and attention to other physical symptoms. In some cases students were treated simultaneously by a physician and the counselor (in cases of obesity, for example). In one case a student with a concave chest was referred to explore the feasibility of surgery to change his appearance. Eventually he accepted his problem as being the necessity for a change in attitude and agreed that counseling, rather than surgery, was the appropriate treatment.

Referral from Medical Doctor to Counselor. The symptoms most frequently resulting in referrals from the medical doctor to the counselor were gastrointestinal, presumably due to personal stress. Referrals were also made for insomnia, problems of weight control, and general discomfort due to anxiety and stress. One student was referred by one of the medical doctors to the consulting psychiatrist, who, after evaluation, referred the student to the counselor.

Referral from Counselor to Nursing Staff. Some of the same kinds of problems referred to medical doctors were referred to a nurse when deemed more appropriate. In fact, most referrals to a medical doctor were screened by nurses, and,

depending on the nature of the medical problem, some were handled entirely by nurses.

Referral from Nursing Staff to Counselor. One of the nurses on the staff has for many years functioned as a counselor. With the addition of the professional counselor to the staff, this nurse was able to continue her counseling activities knowing that she could use the counseling director for referral and/or consultation. As students routinely entered the waiting room area of the health center, they were immediately assisted by one of the three nurses. The nurses were alert for signs of tension and helped direct students to the counselor when appropriate. On several occasions when a student under severe emotional stress was seeking immediate attention and the counselor was unavailable, a nurse handled the matter by talking with the student or finding him a private waiting room until she could inform the counselor of the situation.

Interaction of Campus Health Staff with Consulting Psychiatrist. Though not located on the campus, the consulting psychiatrist was an integral part of the health service team. His office was just two blocks off campus, so he was quite accessible for referral, and he came to the campus almost weekly for consultation with the medical and counseling staff members. On several occasions he also met with small groups of other staff and faculty, which led to the faculty's requesting him to speak to groups of students in classes.

Consultation among Various Members of Health Center Staff. When important decisions involving clients had to be made, it seemed reasonable to assume that a better decision could be reached by a team of professionals than by an isolated individual. The close contact in one building facilitated staff interaction and a team approach. Staff were able to meet informally during a coffee break, and meetings could be called at a moment's notice. Several emergencies were handled by the medical-counseling team, and staff felt that better judgment grew out of the team approach than would have grown out of an individual's acting alone.

The Physical Facility. It has already been mentioned that the advantage of having the entire staff located in one building allowed for the proximity of staff to each other. Another physical asset was the infirmary section of the building, which proved useful to both medical and counseling staff. Use of the infirmary by the medical staff is obvious, but occasionally the counselor found the infirmary an asset to his role. Several potentially serious problems were averted by the counselor's urging students to use the infirmary as a place to get some rest or sleep rather than continue to face a high stress situation on campus.

THE BROADER SCENE

This article has focused on describing the interaction among physical and mental health specialists at a small college health resource center; the implication is that the team effort seems to result in improved services for students. The description purposely omitted what would have been a much more lengthy discussion of interaction with the larger campus community. Many individuals on our campus, including other student personnel staff and administrators, faculty members, secretaries, and students, shared in the common goal of developing a healthy campus community that would facilitate student growth and learning, and the health service team communicated regularly and directly with these other segments of the campus. At the end of its first year as an integrated medical and counseling resource center, the health resource center has had some success in serving the campus, but the staff looks forward to its second year knowing there is much work to be done. ∎

The AEPT:
An Adjunct in Counseling

WILLIAM E. SIMON

One of the most pervasive and influential factors in many of the interpersonal problems that cause people to seek counseling is what may be termed inaccuracy of emotional perception, which refers to the degree to which two individuals incorrectly perceive the qualitative and quantitative dimensions of each other's emotional states. While accuracy of emotional perception is seldom a sufficient condition for a mutually satisfying relationship between persons X and Y, inaccuracy of emotional perception is frequently a sufficient condition for a mutually unsatisfying relationship.

In my experience as a clinical psychologist I have come to believe that the reason inaccuracy of emotional perception is so important is that it tends, more often than not, to become involved in a vicious circle with an inability and/or unwillingness to communicate. In such a circle hostility, sometimes masquerading as apathy, functions as one of the primary factors. Thus, X's belief that Y "doesn't really understand me" induces feelings of hostility. These feelings of hostility, in turn, tend to decrease the amount of meaningful communication taking place between X and Y. Finally, the decrease in the amount of meaningful communication between X and Y results in greater inaccuracy of emotional perception.

The purpose of this article is to describe briefly a technique, the Accuracy of Emotional Perception Technique (AEPT), that I have found quite helpful in dealing with interpersonal problems where inaccuracy of emotional perception is a fundamental cause. The AEPT is a very simple technique that in many ways represents the systematic application of a vehicle that all counselors probably employ at one time or another.

For illustrative purposes, let us consider the case of John and Mary, who have been married for 10 years. Both are unhappy in their marriage and vehemently complain of "growing unhappier by the day." Within a few sessions it becomes apparent to the counselor that inaccuracy of emotional perception is a fundamental cause of the difficulties that John and Mary are experiencing. The counselor may then, at a propitious moment, introduce the AEPT by saying something along the following lines:

Accurately perceiving other people, especially the way they feel, is a very difficult task. Most individuals seem to feel that they are pretty accurate at perceiving how other people feel, especially people whom they know well. However, it is often the case that these individuals overestimate the accuracy with which they can perceive other people's feelings.

Related to this point, there is something that I would like both of you to do for next session. John, I would like you to write down (a) all the things that you like and all the things that you dislike about Mary and (b) all the things that you think Mary will write down on her lists of all the things that she likes and all the things that she dislikes about you. Please try to be as specific and as detailed as possible. Next to each of the likes and dislikes on your two lists write either a 3 to indicate a strong like or dislike, a 2 to indicate one that is moderate in strength, or a 1 to indicate a mild like or dislike.

Mary, I would like you to do the same thing, that is, to write down (a) all the things that you like and all the things that you dislike about John and (b) all the things that you think John

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will write down on his lists of all the things that he likes and all the things that he dislikes about you. Please try to be as specific and as detailed as possible. Next week, between the two of you, we should have four separate lists. During the next week, please do not discuss this exercise or show each other your lists.

The counselor then clarifies any questions the clients may have about the procedure. The point about their being as specific and as detailed as possible is strongly emphasized. They are instructed not only to enumerate their likes and dislikes but also to spend some time thinking and writing about each of them.

At the following session, John is asked to read his list of those things that he dislikes about Mary. After each of these dislikes is read, Mary answers yes or no, according to whether or not she had it on her list of her perception of John's dislikes. Mary then reads her list of dislikes, John responding yes or no in the same fashion. Following this, the lists of the things that they like about each other are read. The counselor may also choose to have the clients report the strength of their likes and dislikes in terms of the three-point scale of intensity. It is suggested that the counselor let the clients decide the order in which the four lists are to be read. (I generally prefer to begin with the two lists of dislikes.)

At the end of this session, the AEPT is introduced as a weekly exercise. John and Mary are asked to write down (a) all the things the other person does during the week that please them and all the things the other person does during the week that annoy them and (b) all the things that they think the other person will put down on his or her two lists. Once again the counselor stresses the point that all the items on their lists should be described in as much detail as possible. John and Mary are told, for example, that they should write down not only the fact that a particular act annoyed them but also precisely why they viewed the act as an annoyance. They are

cautioned that for most people it takes a considerable amount of time and effort to examine and describe their own feelings adequately. The counselor may also ask John and Mary to categorize each of the items on their lists according to the three-point scale of intensity. Each week the four lists brought by the clients are thoroughly discussed, compared, and analyzed.

VALUES OF THE AEPT

I have found the Accuracy of Emotional Perception Technique to be a valuable counseling adjunct in at least three ways. First, and most basically, it often elicits material that had not been elicited in any of the earlier sessions. Given the rather stringent limitations on time and privacy that exist during the counseling hour, it is not particularly surprising that many clients can formulate a more thorough and accurate presentation of their emotional responses during the other 167 hours of the week. New material may either be discussed when it is brought up or filed away by the counselor for future discussion. If possible, however, it is suggested that both clients be given the opportunity to read their entire lists at each session. The counselor may then either choose the material he wishes to focus on during the rest of the session or let the clients make the choice.

The second value of the AEPT is that it often helps clients at least consider the possibility that they themselves are partially responsible for the unsatisfying relationships in which they are involved. Being forced by the AEPT to think systematically about their grievances and to describe them in detail in writing often makes clients realize that their unhappiness is caused not so much by the actions of other people as by their own perceptions of these actions. I have had many clients who, after reading over and discussing their lists for a number of sessions, became amazed by the intensity of

the negative feelings they had developed toward other people on the basis of relatively trivial and superficial events.

The third value of the AEPT is that it often impresses on X and Y the fact that they are not quite as aware of each other's feelings as they might believe. As most counselors can readily confirm, it is frequently very difficult for X and Y to assess correctly the accuracy of their own emotional perception. The greater the conflict and hostility existing between X and Y, the more difficult accurate assessment becomes. I have found that during the counseling process the AEPT often reveals that improvement in the overall relationship between X and Y is accompanied by an almost directly proportional mutual increase in accuracy of emotional perception.

Accuracy of emotional perception may be quantitatively measured by computing an Accuracy Index (AI). Two AI's, one for likes and one for dislikes, are computed for X and for Y. The AI for X's likes is computed simply by dividing the total number of items that he correctly believed Y would have on her list of likes by the total number of items she actually had on her list and expressing the result as a percentage. An AI for X's dislikes and AI's for Y's likes and dislikes are computed similarly. The number of inaccurately perceived items may be

added after the percentage. Thus an AI of 50 percent (7) for X's likes would mean that he correctly perceived half the items on Y's list of likes and incorrectly perceived 7 items that were not on Y's list of likes. A perfect AI would be represented by an index of 100 percent (0). An overall AI for a relationship can be computed simply by averaging the four individual AI's.

OTHER APPLICATIONS

While I have most often used the AEPT in marriage counseling situations, I have also found it a valuable adjunct in dealing with interpersonal problems involving individuals who are other than husband and wife. The individuals may be a parent and a teenager or a teacher and a student who are experiencing a great deal of stress in their relationship, a couple contemplating marriage but feeling disturbing doubts about satisfactorily relating to each other on a day-to-day basis, or two business associates who seem to spend more time in destructive argumentation than in constructive discussion. The AEPT is potentially useful in dealing with any interpersonal problem where (a) inaccuracy of emotional perception is a basic cause and (b) the individuals involved are sincerely motivated to improve their relationship. ■

Etcetera

Daniel Sinick
George Washington University

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

Pupil Personnel Services Guidelines for Training, Certification, Accreditation. National Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators, P.O. Box 711, Princeton, New Jersey 08640. 1972. 17 pp. $1.00.

An extension of the NAPPA 1969 *Position Statement,* this publication was prepared by a talented committee: Edward Landy, Benjamin Barbarosh, Franklyn Graff, and Robert Stoughton. The first in a series of monographs, it offers "guidelines, not a manual of forms and instructions," in an effort to avoid "sterile uniformity and rigidity and to provide a rationale for the areas of training, certification, and accreditation." For each area, significant questions are presented and pertinent answers suggested. NAPPA has not been napping.

Teacher and Child: A Book for Parents and Teachers by Haim G. Ginott. The Macmillan Company, 866 Third Avenue, New York 10022. 1972. 323 pp. $5.95. **Changing Children's Behavior** by John D. Krumboltz and Helen Brandhorst Krumboltz. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632. 1972. 268 pp. $7.95 hardbound, $4.95 paperback.

A cynic might well feel caught between Scylla and Charybdis in reviewing these contrasting, clashing books. Readers familiar with Ginott's popular, best-selling style will find another concoction following a tested formula. Many of the ingredients were apparently provided by parents, teachers, and students in Ginott's classes, for he is a psychology professor as well as a psychotherapist. He puts together a patchwork of pungent, punchy, often punny pieces that are very short and easy to read. Entertainer seems the word for this sit-down comedian. He briefly interrupts the show from time to time, however, with educational commercials, which tend to breach his own precepts: "Teachers at their best . . . do not believe in the power of pontification. They neither preach nor moralize." His collage of anecdotes covers such content as good and poor teaching, motivation, discipline, praise, and "congruent communication." The Krumboltz combo, entertainers too, present considerable anecdotal—and even comic-strip—material, but under the much heavier hand of behavior modification. Reinforcement is reinforced throughout the six sections of this book— Strengthening Existing Behavior, Developing New Behavior, Maintaining New Behavior, Stopping Inappropriate Behavior, Modifying Emotional Responses, and Changing Your Behavior—all pervaded by "thirteen principles." Within its Skinnerian scope, the book is scholarly; it looks like a textbook and is priced like one. In our current society's "token economy," Ginott will get more M&M's.

Guidance: An Introduction—Selected Readings edited by John R. Cochran and Herman J. Peters. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1300 Alum Creek Dr., Columbus, Ohio 43216. 1972. 552 pp. $5.95.

Parting company with the plethora of perfunctory compilations of other people's publications, this is a purposeful and punctilious compendium. While many compilers comply with the "principles" of Parkinson and Peter, Cochran and Peters have put together a package comprising part of themselves. They contribute introductions to the entire book of 54 readings and to the 10 sections, 10 sets of selected bibliographies to supplement the readings, and a "concordance" that relates the 10 sections to 21 guidance textbooks.

An Instructional Program for Employability Orientation by William C. Osborn and others. Human Resources Research Organization, 300 North Washington Street, Alexandria, Virginia 22314. 1972. 304 pp. $7.50.

Prepared for the U.S. Department of Labor to use in its Work Incentive (WIN) Program,

this 8×10½ handbook "would be useful for other agencies in work with trainees who are similar to the WIN trainee population." WIN trainees are welfare recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children. Their orientation training is based on "the fact that finding, keeping, and advancing in a job require knowledges and skills *in addition* to those of a purely job-function nature." From a nationwide questionnaire to experienced WIN staff members, a list of 51 "relevant enrollee behaviors" was developed, then translated into behavioral objectives. These led to the two parts of this handbook, the first providing guidelines for administrative determination of the curriculum most responsive to enrollee needs and the second for instructional content in 18 subject areas, from food, clothing, and health, through vocational goals and job searching, to employee relations and company/union policies.

Manpower Report of the President. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. 1972. 284 pp. $2.25.

This annual report is prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor in accordance with the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended. Almost as large as government stationery, it moves over a lot of territory, covering such content as manpower policy goals; employment/unemployment of women and teenagers (first), Negroes, veterans, and other special groups; improving the school-to-work transition through career education, apprenticeship, and federal manpower programs; and the changed job market for many professional personnel—teachers, scientists, engineers, physicians, nurses, and other health occupations. The latter half of this doubly topical tome contains detailed tables of pertinent data; for readers who prefer textual to tabulated material, this appendix, like others, is not essential.

The Nature of Work: Readings for College Students edited by Alan Kraus. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 605 Third Avenue, New York 10016. 1972. 227 pp. $3.95.

The 26 short selections from a variety of sources are divided into five parts: work and how it can affect you, changes to be expected in work, problems in seeking a career, other problems in a work-oriented society, and how individuals have handled their work situations—these last selections from noted fiction writers. Kraus contributes a brief preface, a clarifying question preceding each title, and thought-provoking questions at the end of each selection. Though some of the readings lack recency, the book has value for supplementary use, as these readings about work really work.

Review of Research: Career Planning and Development, Placement, and Recruitment of College-Trained Personnel by J. L. Windle, Adrian P. VanMondfrans, and Richard S. Kay. College Placement Council, P.O. Box 2263, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18001. 1972. 151 pp. $10.00.

Sponsored by the College Placement Council Foundation and the Midwest College Placement Association, this 8½×11 volume includes 201 studies selected from over 1,000 conducted between 1960 and 1970. The research abstracts contain evaluative comments regarding study strengths and weaknesses, apparent contributions, and further research questions. A solid table of contents is supplemented by an author index and a detailed subject index. Under the major subject classifications of The Individual, The Career Planning and Placement Center, and The Employer are such subheads as characteristics, decision-making, interviewing, transition to and participation in work, each broken down further into more specific points of entry into the valuable reviews.

The New York Times Guide to Continuing Education in America edited by Frances Coombs Thomson. Quadrangle Books, Inc., 330 Madison Avenue, New York 10017. 1972. 811 pp. $12.50.

Prepared by the College Entrance Examination Board, this guide is geared to people who interrupted their schooling at any point; who wish to advance on the job or into other jobs; who want to convert hobbies into careers; whose children are grown or too small to object; or who *"just want to know more for the fun of it."* A light touch helps this heavy tome, the bulk of which is a listing of institutions offering classroom or correspondence courses for adults. Supplementary material supplies information about accreditation, credit getting, relevant organizations, and readings, together with a glossary.

Book Reviews

The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook
edited by Oscar K. Buros. Highland Park,
New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1972. 1,986
pp. $55.00.

Reviewing a new edition of the Mental Meas-
urements Yearbook (MMY) is more accurately
reviewing the work of one man—its editor,
Oscar Buros—and the perfect review of him
was offered at a recent luncheon in his honor
when the emcee said, "Oscar, if you didn't
exist, you'd have to be invented."

I grow weary simply thinking of what he
and his very close colleague, his wife, Luella,
have accomplished—again. The seventh MMY
is, like its predecessors, an unparalleled con-
tribution to the profession that reflects the
authors' continued high standards. Along
with the publication of this edition,
Gryphon Press (which is Oscar and Luella

Buros—they chose the name because they
thought it looked nice in type) has reissued
the first (1938) and second (1940) yearbooks,
so the entire collection is now in print.
Anyone with a complete set has access to
virtually every test review and every review
of any book on testing ever published in
English.

What Oscar Buros does in preparing a new
edition is relatively easy to describe. He
collects a specimen copy of every test pub-
lished since the last edition (in this case 1,157
tests since 1966), decides which of them merit
attention (in this edition 546), and writes to
two or three of the country's leading experts
on each test and asks them to write an evalua-
tive review (for this edition 439 reviewers
wrote 798 reviews). While waiting for
replies, and in between editing them up to

his high standards, he looks up *every* reference on *every* test (in this edition 12,373 references) and also excerpts for reprinting any test reviews he finds in the hundreds of journals that he searches (in this edition 181 excerpted reviews). When time hangs heavy on his hands, he makes up a list of all recent books on testing and assessment techniques (in this edition 664 published between 1964 and 1970), and, as long as he is reading all of those journals anyway, he excerpts for reprinting any reviews he finds of these books (in this edition 555 book reviews).

All of this has not kept him and his wife busy, so in their spare time several years ago they set out to learn, and have become admirable experts in, the fields of printing, book layout and design, and production. Consequently, all of the review materials appear in highly professionally produced, attractive books, selling for—when one considers the product—a relatively modest price.

The test reviews are the core of the MMY's; they are written by the Who's Who of psychometrics, are "frankly critical," and almost all end with a short paragraph giving the reviewer's general evaluation of the test. Constructive criticism is encouraged, and pungent comments are sprinkled through the test reviews. Viciousness, however, is not permitted, nor are caustic asides that serve only the reviewer's ego. I know from experience that sloppy, harsh indictments will be returned to the reviewer for better documentation; when such documentation is provided, criticisms, no matter how devastating, are printed.

The only complaint I would make of this system—and it is a faint one—is that the test reviewers are too often stodgy and parochial in their views (the average reviewer is over 48 years old, whatever that implies), but this is likely an inevitable consequence of using experts in any field.

Another major feature of the MMY's is the collection of excerpted reviews of recent books on testing. Skimming these is richly rewarding for the applied behavioral scientist. Included in this edition's book reviews are several reviews of the earlier MMY edition, and these make me aware that hardly anything new can be said about the MMY's—the word *monumental*, for example, has been used in over 10 reviews—but many things said before are worth repeating, such as:

[The MMY] ought to be required reading in measurement courses so that graduate students can sense the drama and the paradox of what is essentially one man assuming a responsibility for a profession [Thomas F. Donlon, p. 1,599].

The passionate dedication and prodigious effort poured into these volumes would be easier to understand if Oscar Buros were an intense, quiet, shy recluse who thrived only among index cards, musty files, and green eyeshades. But he is not, and there is curiously little in the writings about the MMY that captures his hearty, warm, outgoing qualities, a regrettable gap that should in the future be filled somehow.

Like its six predecessors, the *Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook* is a monumental achievement, unique in its comprehensiveness, unsurpassed in its quality, and indispensable in its contents.—*David P. Campbell, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

Group Counseling: A Developmental Approach by George M. Gazda. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1971. 273 pp. $8.95.

The author's intent is to present a "comprehensive" guide to group counseling for all age levels—a noteworthy goal for a 273-page book, one-third of which is secondary to his goal. My first and sustained reaction, however, is that Gazda does not do what he intended, and his book is therefore a premature publication.

Group counseling is viewed by Gazda as a *preventive-remedial* process—*preventive* when implemented at the time poor coping behaviors for given developmental tasks are exhibited and *remedial* when applied to persons coping inappropriately but not yet debilitated. Details for group counselors about such topics as client selection and group composition, preferred size, location and media, leadership approaches, stages of group development, and group process management are given limited but helpful attention. The focus on group counseling in the book title is misleading, because a large portion of the text presents group guidance procedures—cognitive, informational, prevention oriented processes for classroom-sized groups.

Systematic human relations a la Robert Carkhuff is not only the primary methodology

Lots of people have jobs we taught them.

Think of today's Army as the world's largest technical school and you'll realize why we have so many successful alumni.

You see, there are over 300 occupations in today's Army that aren't too unlike corresponding civilian jobs. So when a young man learns a job with us he has a skill when he gets out.

He can pick that skill, too, before he enlists. And if he's qualified, he'll get the training to perform it like a professional. Which means intensive, on-the-job training along with classroom instruction.

While he learns he gets paid a good salary. And with 30 days paid vacation a year, free meals, free housing, free clothing, and free dental and medical care, his take-home pay goes a long way.

Send the coupon or write to Army Opportunities, P.O. Box 5510A, Philadelphia, PA 19143, about job-training opportunities in today's Army. You may help a young man pick up skills that will benefit us now, and himself forever. **Today's Army wants to join you.**

Gazda promotes; it is also the one Gazda presents as the panacea for all group work. In addition to being cited throughout the book, Carkhuff contributes a chapter on training as group treatment and a demonstration protocol in the appendix.

I was surprised that Gazda attacks the classroom and small group methods of the Human Potential Movement for lack of experimental validation. His careful, cognitive, verbal-reinforcement, group model appears to have surfaced as a reaction to the popularity of contact oriented, humanistic, and Gestalt methods. While predicting that the Human Potential Movement "may prove to have the most profound effect on the group counseling movement," he has proceeded to write his "comprehensive" text totally disregarding the Movement's contributions. Furthermore, he fails to identify and integrate the important contributions of human relations training (a la NTL) that provide more developmental group models than anything in group counseling and guidance.

In summary, the book constitutes an interesting and unique beginning—a point of departure that shows promise by linking knowledge from developmental psychology with developmental constructs and methodology from systematic learning theory. In its present exploratory state of development this cursory text will be of limited value to group workers and trainers.—*Ansel L. Woldt, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.*

Assessment of Lives by Charles A. Dailey. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1971. 243 pp. $9.50.

This book presents the rationale for and early research efforts on the author's assessment model. He considers this model more "humanistic" than the traditional model, which he characterizes as "psychometric and behavioristic." His new approach is built around the collection and interpretation of data obtained from a comprehensive investigation of the life history of the individual being assessed. Early chapters contain the usual criticisms of assessment as it is now practiced in medicine, industry, business, and education. The author then presents his conceptualization of improvements, some results of investigating this new approach, sample programmed cases, a checklist, and a biographic questionnaire.

Nearly all potential weaknesses and shortcomings of this new model are recognized, acknowledged, and then dismissed with the reasoning that they can be overcome and in any event are no worse than present conditions, practices, and results. These arguments are not always convincing, however, and one is left with the impression that we are being urged to exchange a headache for an upset stomach.

Are the results of humanistic assessment to be more valid or merely more congenial? Any assessment model, regardless of its label, will inevitably produce for some individuals conclusions that are very much different from those they expect and desire. A professional serves well when he has the courage and techniques to communicate what the individual needs to hear, even when the content is discrepant from what he wants to hear. Overconcentration on form and language of assessment results overlooks the fact that there is nothing inherently humanistic about a paragraph as contrasted to a stanine. If the use of hitherto neglected sources of information about an individual improves the validity of assessment conclusions, recommendations, and predictions, then truly great progress will have been achieved.

This book will be useful in advanced measurement courses and seminars where the philosophy of assessment is a focus of concern. As a practical alternative to present assessment practices, however, belling the cat has always been easier to talk about than to accomplish.—*Lawrence Beymer, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

Psychobehavioral Counseling and Therapy by Robert Henley Woody. New York: Meredith Corporation, 1971. 250 pp. $10.95.

The behavior therapies have demonstrated some remarkable accomplishments within recent years, and the more traditionally oriented "insight" therapists cannot afford to overlook these recent dramatic achievements. An eclectic approach, straddling both insight and behavior counseling, is the posture advocated by Woody. The book is largely directed toward providing a philosophical and theoretical argument designed to help the Freudian, neo-Freudian, Rogerian, and other insight oriented counselor to perceive the new accomplishments from his own frame

of reference and thereby make them palatable.

Woody also gives a very brief description of some behavior modification techniques, largely those used in individual therapeutic counseling, such as verbal conditioning and desensitization. The second half of the text contains various useful suggestions for integrating the behavioral approach into counselor training programs and emphasizes student selection, curriculum revision, and the training process itself.

For the practicing counselor seeking a rationale for learning about and applying behavioral techniques, the book will be helpful. It notes some exciting behavioral research, considers ethics in goal selection, and discusses some of the more frequently encountered negative reactions to behavior therapy. However, the counselor who wishes to implement behavior therapy techniques will need to go elsewhere for his training. The descriptions of the behavior modification techniques are not designed to facilitate implementation by the reader. The school counselor in particular will need to seek other sources, since he is more likely to be asked to consult and/or treat overt student problems such as poor academic achievement, disruption, or social interaction difficulties and less likely to be asked to work on phobias and other neurotic complaints. Unfortunately, Woody hardly considers the abundance of material concerning behavior modification in the schools. (Perhaps he feels he has covered that topic adequately in his previous book.)

From the point of view of a stricter behaviorist, I have a serious concern about the book. Behavior modification applies experimentally derived behavior principles to the solution of socially important problems and requires objective observational systems in order to achieve accountability. By ignoring these systems, Woody may inadvertently communicate the notion that all the behavior modifier needs to do is apply rules without systematically studying their effects. Behavior modification must continue to document its accomplishments if it is to provide efficient and effective assistance to people desiring to solve their problems in living.—*Beth Sulzer-Azaroff, Mansfield Training School, Mansfield, Connecticut.*

The Elementary School Counselor in the Decade Ahead edited by Harvey W. Zingle and E. Eugene Fox. Toronto (Ontario), Canada: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada, Limited, 1972. 183 pp. $4.12. Distributed in the United States by Winston Press, 383 Madison Ave., New York 10017.

The greatest impact made by this presentation of the first Canadian Conference on Counseling in the Elementary School is its projection of the elementary counselor as a forceful change agent for the entire system.

The definition given by Verne Faust in "The Elementary Counselor as a Contributor to a New World" emphasizes one such approach for achieving change. Myrne B. Nevison's position is a bit more flexible; he suggests that the counseling role can best be fulfilled when the community determines the functions that need to be performed, but he believes that counselors need to be part of the decision making process. A. Lee Hoxter's paper on "Counseling in the Inner City Schools" uses a theoretical model approach, but the core idea is still that the counselor is a change agent. Hoxter sees the counselor as the key person in a whole network of community helping services.

At about this point in reading the book, I paused to consider what was going on here. My first reaction was one of rejoicing and delight. Here at last was apparently pretty clear evidence of a strong movement in the direction a number of us have been hoping for over the past 10 or 15 years. Since my first experience as an elementary counselor was in 1949, I have a tendency to wax reminiscent and point out the evolution from the concept that a counselor was a person who "fixed" children with problems to the present widely accepted concept that a counselor is a leader of a broad developmental program for all children. Musing a bit, another reaction emerged. Just how grandiose can a professional group become? Elementary counselors think they can change the world, do they? A bit more pondering and a thoughtful reading of the rest of the volume led me to believe that there is just a chance—a small one, mind you—but a chance that they do make a difference that is just noticeable.

Parts II though VI deal with more concrete and practical matters. A number of different positions are included. Some writers are decidedly humanistic (Richard Usher, George E. Hill, Don Knowles); another describes in practical terms the use of behavior modification (Gerard M. Kysela). Areas such as play therapy, the role of diagnosis, work with other specialists, the administration and organization of counseling services, and the issue of confidentiality are all covered. There seems to be something for everyone.

The editors state that they believe the book will be useful in helping educators understand better the contributions an elementary counselor can make. Counselors can get some food for thought too.—*Loyce McGehearty Hagens, University of Corpus Christi, Corpus Christi, Texas.*

Careers in Counseling and Guidance by Shelley C. Stone and Bruce Shertzer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972. 168 pp. $5.95.

By discussing counselors in glowing terms as "caring" people of above-average intelligence serving as "agents of change," Shelley Stone and Bruce Shertzer have done a good PR job for counselor educators and counselor education programs.

The book is designed for student use in beginning counselor education courses and as a supplementary source for persons seeking information about careers in this field. It should serve these purposes well. However, professionals in the field would wince at some of the oversimplifications, broad generalizations, and inconsistencies found in the chapters framing the heart of the book.

The heart of the book is the material dealing with career counseling opportunities in various settings, and this comes off quite adequately. A useful summary of information is provided on opportunities in educational institutions; federal, state, and local government programs; and other settings. Attention is also given to patterns of entry and advancement into counselor positions.

Though the book purports to deal with careers in counseling *and* guidance, it describes only "professional counseling" careers and some positions allied to counseling. No differentiation of "counseling" and "guidance" is offered; it should have been. Further, the operational definition used for "counseling" lacks uniqueness; it could be claimed by professionals in such fields as law, medicine, and law enforcement.

However, when the authors get down to brass tacks in answering the question "What does a counselor do?" they find it helpful to identify counselors with their settings and functions, e.g., school counselor, employment counselor, veterans' counselor, educational rehabilitation counselor, dormitory counselor, and marriage counselor. Their caution is well taken that "helping professionals . . . are employed to contribute to the accomplishment of the institutions' goals or mission. For this reason the employment setting inevitably determines, to a large extent, many of the specific tasks performed in the counselor's day to day work period."

Some harsh realities are found in the authors' comments on the current status and prospects of counseling professions. In this age of increasing emphasis on accountability and priorities, however, I would challenge their statement that "presently in many schools and colleges, counseling practitioners are no longer asked to justify their existence and can devote their full time to providing services."

The authors have indeed made a valiant attempt to put a lot of information into a little space in the interest of helping the reader understand the counseling profession. However, one gets the impression that, except for the chapters on career counseling opportunities, this is not one of their better efforts.
—*James M. O'Hara, Denver Public Schools.*

Passport to Freedom by Charles G. Hurst, Jr. Hamden, Connecticut: The Shoe String Press, Inc., 1972. 242 pp. $7.95.

The purpose of this book is to show, first, the built-in irrelevance of most popular and traditional methods of teaching, selecting subject matter, and organizing institutions and, second, why and how these need to be explored. The author is a brilliant black educator who is the president of the exciting Malcolm X College in Chicago.

Throughout the text, praise for Malcolm X is generously distributed. While Hurst brings to his position all of the professional and personal credentials one would expect—he received a PhD from Wayne State, was a professor and dean at Howard, was head of a consulting firm, held board memberships on national organizations, and lost a son in Vietnam—and therefore assures his unquestioned participation in the mainstream of

society, he urges with a passionate insistence that we listen to the clarion call of Malcolm X for a different kind of education for black youth. He also asks for a humanizing of education. What does he mean by this?

On pages 44 and 45 he lists 12 things wrong with schools, e.g., that there is no "joy or spontaneity" and too much dependence on rigid standards and the authority of the teacher. While such a list could be found many places, Hurst goes on, page after page, to indict the culture for its patent racism and shows how this racism is embraced implicitly and explicitly in education. The schools act as its agents by addressing themselves to the perpetuation of white, middle class norms and by treating lower socioeconomic groups and blacks with negligence and contempt.

Hurst does not answer the question at the hub of the problem: How can blacks ever get out of the lower socioeconomic stratum if they reject the requirements of the dominant culture? He does say that blacks should cultivate values counter to those that have brought war and racism to such centrality in Western civilization.

Black educators have to walk this tightrope

continually—struggling to command the resources to prepare students to be competitive; developing appreciation for a quality of life that is parallel to much of what the Protestant ethic is all about; and yet protecting the students from being co-opted by the "system," forgetting their local community needs and joining the exodus to suburbia.

Whether this is done successfully or not at Malcolm X, the dialogue is heavily enriched by Hurst's inputs in this volume. Whites who grew up in "whiteness" will find no better exposure to what's happening than what they find in this book.—*Samuel D. Proctor, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey.*

Coping with the Unseen Environment by Herbert Rusalem. New York: Teachers College Press, 1972. 349 pp. $11.50.

Counselors who want information about blindness and rehabilitation of blind persons will be pleased to have this book. Rusalem presents recent statistics about the incidence of blindness and describes the physical, emotional, and social impact of being blind. His evaluation of rehabilitation progress suggests that more than a little needs to be done to orient those who work with the blind toward newly achievable goals.

Rusalem's aim in preparing this volume is to offer better orientation to workers in general rehab agencies and to new workers in agencies for the blind. He has accomplished his goal in a style that is straightforward and easy to read. Since this is admittedly an introduction to vocational rehabilitation of blind persons, he does not go into needless detail about special areas but covers information adequately. For those who want more information, he has references—50 pages of them—suggesting where it can be found.

There are some problems with referencing, but in general the book appears to be technically sound. The style of print is easily read and could be transcribed in talking book form without difficulty. The summaries at the end of each chapter are helpful aids for quick recall.

Rusalem ends the book with a chapter entitled "Toward Improved Vocational Rehabilitation for Blind Persons"; in it he discusses a dozen unanswered questions and makes a baker's dozen proposals for the future. This in itself is an excellent way to summarize the book and then move forward.

In summary, Rusalem has prepared a book that effectively serves its stated purpose. It will inform new rehabilitation workers about characteristics and needs of blind clients. Many others who are interested in learning about blind individuals also can learn from it.—*Frank V. Touchstone, Mental Health Center, Hazard, Kentucky.*

Counseling Techniques with Youth by Frank H. Krause and Donald E. Hendrickson. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972. 122 pp. $2.95.

Some authors describe counseling as a humanistic and attitudinal relationship in which the personhood of the counselor is the catalyst for behavior change. Other authors describe counseling as the application of a series of techniques designed to induce behavior change. Krause and Hendrickson have written a techniques book and should be commended for their honesty in indicating this in their title.

This book deals with (a) the problems concerning today's youth—parents, the world situation, drugs, sexual adjustment, military draft, career indecision, peer relations, black and white conflicts; (b) the concepts of an effective personality, as identified by Allport, Shoben, Rogers, and Blocher; (c) alternatives to the one-to-one counseling relationship—group counseling, psychodrama, activity therapy, multiple counseling; (d) the physical facilities deemed necessary in a counseling program—waiting area, individual counseling office, group and activity counseling room, psychometric area, audiovisual master control room; and (e) the following techniques of counseling—simple reflection, reflection of feelings, interpretation, clarification, confrontation, termination, and referral.

I personally had difficulty in developing a positive response to this book for the following reasons.

First, it is too complex for a novice counselor and too elementary for an experienced counselor.

Second, some techniques cited are quite dated and simplistic. One 1949 reference recommended the following techniques designed to make a client feel accepted: "Shake hands with a firm, short handclasp; don't

interrupt him; don't ridicule or humiliate the counselee."

Third, the book attempts to be everybody's friend. That is, all theories and techniques are good and acceptable and the reader has only to take the best of diverse viewpoints (e.g., Carl Rogers and Frederick Thorne), mix well, and blend into some sort of comfortable eclecticism.

Fourth, there are obvious contradictions in the book. For example, on page 19, "The counselor must develop the ability to identify and communicate his own feelings about his counselee," while on page 29 the authors state that the counselor's interest in the client must be "tempered with a reserve and distance enabling him to accept attitudes and feelings expressed by the client without reacting personally to them."

Anyone unacquainted with a techniques approach to counseling should be interested in this book. Any book is worthwhile because it is an expression of a viewpoint, and all viewpoints must be encountered if the counselor desires to evolve toward objectivity in his personalized approach to counseling.— *Angelo V. Boy, University of New Hampshire, Durham.*

Vocational Guidance and Career Development in the Schools: Toward a Systems Approach by Edwin L. Herr and Stanley H. Cramer. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972. 356 pp. $9.95.

Presaging the phenomenal growth and impact of vocational development theory, research, and practice during the past two decades, W. S. Dysinger proposed in 1950 that the field of guidance needed a concept that comprehended for the individual's work life the parallel processes subsumed by the concept of socialization in his interpersonal life. In an attempt to explicate the nature of these processes, i.e., vocational maturity and vocational adjustment, this reviewer in 1958 coined the term *vocationalization* but did not extrapolate either its theoretical or applied implications. Herr and Cramer have undertaken this task in *Vocational Guidance and Career Development in the Schools,* and they have been largely successful in it.

They subscribe to a systems approach to the facilitation of vocationalization, based on the premise that "vocational behavior and development as well as access to work are based on

knowledge, skills, and attitudes which can be fostered rather than left to chance." The goal of the system, at all levels of the elementary, middle, and high school educational structure, is to maximize the vocational maturity of every student. The means to this end are varied, encompassing not only the more traditional treatment techniques of vocational counseling but also the more innovative interventions of contemporary guidance programs, including career curriculums, computer-based informational and decisional systems, and field trips to industrial settings. Built into the system is the provision for self-corrective feedback and objective evaluation of its effectiveness.

The specifics of this approach are detailed in the heart of the book, which consists of chapters on formulating objectives for vocational guidance and outlining strategies for their realization at the elementary, junior, and senior high school levels. Preceding this discussion is a somewhat cursory overview of the American occupational structure, and following it is a series of three chapters which deal, respectively, with (a) helping strategies, (b) assessment, and (c) information in voca-

tional guidance. The book closes with a plea for cooperation among the several agencies and enterprises that impinge on youth's vocationalization (such as school, employment, and rehabilitation counseling services) and an analysis of how to change the existing system in order to implement the new one.

As is apparent from the scope and range of topics covered in the book, it is essentially a survey or outline of vocationalization in the schools. At its best, it is a scholarly, selective treatment of the subject; at its worst, it is a repetitive reproduction of lists of goals and objectives and criteria and principles and strategies, etc. Had these nostrums been presented, *critically* appraised, and largely rejected for the verbiage most of them are, the book would have been much tighter, and space would have been gained for Herr's and Cramer's original thinking on the systems approach they are advocating.—*John O. Crites, University of Maryland, College Park.*

Toward a Sociology of Women by Constantina Safilios-Rothschild. Lexington, Massachusetts: Xerox College Publishing, 1972. 406 pp. $4.50.

In all social movements, much that is written is angry and impassioned, stimulating an immediate response more quickly than would coolly reasoned research. An exception is *Toward a Sociology of Women*, in which an attempt is made to present a cross-cultural analysis of women's options and their effects on both women and men. The various articles include historical overviews, recent research, personal descriptions, and projections into the future. Much of the material explores the existing inequality in explicit legal statutes and in informal social pressures.

In older societies sex roles were God-given and unchangeable. Even today sex role expectations are embedded with individuals' first socialization experiences and are extremely resistant to change. Consequently, counselors have to make up for or undo the effects of early influences.

Repeatedly the counselor is accused of impeding change through perpetuating existing sex role stereotypes. We are said to counsel women away from rigorous career choices, while we could be catalytic agents who help to broaden women's view of career opportunities. We are asked to stop restricting and lowering the occupational aspirations of girls

on the pretext of counseling them to be realistic.

If, as its proponents claim, liberation is of benefit to all women, why are so many women still opposed to it? The answers the book gives—the reluctance to give up leisure and dependence and the threat of alienating boyfriends—do not seem sufficient. Old values may persist simply because change is painful.

Many of the studies cited are based on college-educated women, and generalizations from this sample are not always appropriate. Liberation means one thing for the educated middle class woman and another for the working class wife faced with the prospect of unskilled labor. For the sake of making a point, there are repetitions and occasional exaggerations in the book, but all in all I learned much that was new, and I was stimulated to examine a number of my own stereotypes.

Not all of the material is of equal relevance to the counselor, but because women are the numerical majority in our population, some of the chapters should be required reading for the practitioner as well as for the counselor in training and for the counselor educator.—*Eva Hoffmann, Herbert H. Lehman College of CUNY, Bronx, New York.*

Giving and Taking Help by Alan Keith-Lucas. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: University of North Carolina Press, 1972. 219 pp. $4.50.

Keith-Lucas' book is both rewarding and occasionally frustrating. The counseling practitioner will find it rich in its analysis of the helping process and the helping relationship. This is not surprising, as the author is a distinguished teaching professor of social work with much practical field and consultant experience. He is quite candid in delineating his own value system as well as his strong allegiance to the "functional," erstwhile Rankian, school of social work practice. As a matter of fact, this constitutes both one of the major strengths and weaknesses of the book. Keith-Lucas, quite brilliantly at times, is able to translate the helping process into clearly understandable and warmly readable prose, studded with jewellike, if at times incomplete, case illustrations. Unfortunately, however, in his enthusiasm he has a tendency to overwrite in these sections.

The school guidance counselor, child care

worker, welfare worker, and rehabilitation counselor will find thought-provoking the author's discussion of the role of the helping person in "social control" agencies. His analysis and description of the qualities of, among others, the successful helping person as someone characterized by "courage, humility and concern" make for a refreshing excursion in depth.

The chapter "Suggestions for Practice," though heavily casework oriented, is excellently pragmatic, readily adaptable to a variety of helping settings, and well illustrated. The supervisor of counselors and the beginning counselor-practitioner can use this chapter as a checklist or guide for most interview and counseling situations.

I recommend to all professionals not trained in social work a short gem of a chapter titled "History of Helping." The final chapter, "Helping and Religious Belief," is better avoided.

Despite some unevenness and discursive irrelevancies, this book is a richly rewarding addition to the literature of the helping professions.—*Joseph L. Weinberg, Jewish Vocational Service, East Orange, New Jersey.*

Racism and Psychiatry by Alexander Thomas and Samuel Sillen. New York: Brunner/Mazel, Inc., 1972. 176 pp. $7.50.

Psychiatrists have a problem. They are haunted by the infectious sickness of white racism. Their belief systems, theories, personality concepts, and general approaches to human behavior and mental health practices are heavy-laden with racial prejudices.

Counselors should find this book interesting and revealing, inasmuch as the basic psychological premises under question more or less guide their work. It may be interesting to discover the racist voices of G. Stanley Hall, William McDougall, Carl Jung, H. J. Eysenck, and Lewis Terman.

The authors claim that psychological racism is institutionalized through a process of myth making, genetic poppycock, color blindness, sexual fantasy, and delusions of Moynihanism—all credited to the deficiencies of black Americans.

Unfortunately, this book is written as if black Americans were the focus of and responsible for white racism. The book fails to deal with the psychological hang-ups of white psychiatrists. On the other hand, there are mountains of evidence regarding the behavior of blacks, who again serve as the whites' scapegoats.

The profession is challenged to mend its ways through a weak appeal to the morals of psychiatrists. This call is not convincing. The authors show that little change has taken place in the profession since 1969, when black psychiatrists and psychologists severely criticized the policies and practices of the American Psychiatric Association, the American Psychological Association, and the American Orthopsychiatric Association. Nevertheless, the ideas set forth in this portion of the book appear sound.

The book is well written and can be read without having to confront an oversupply of professional jargon. The book costs $7.50; this statistic is incredible!—*Paul M. Smith, Jr., University of Cincinnati.*

Ethics in Counseling—Problem Situations by Harley D. Christiansen. Tucson, Arizona: University of Arizona Press, 1972. 260 pp. $5.95.

As a counselor, psychologist, social worker, or other practitioner in the behavioral sciences, have you ever wanted to sit down with

others in your field to discuss ethical alternatives with regard to the counseling process? Christiansen provides you with this opportunity by using constructed conversations among four counselors as the vehicle for illustrating the practical applications of the counselor's code of ethics; in a sense, the reader can participate as a member of the group as he reflects on the discussion. Each counselor expresses a different point of view; one is quite permissive, the second is impulsive, the third is rather tactful, and the fourth favors his employing institution over the counselee. At times, the comments and reactions of the counselors are quite similar; however, the situations presented and discussed are so numerous and interesting that the major message is not hampered.

The scope and nature of the situations are realistic and succinctly presented. This book is timely because of the legal activity taking place relative to confidentiality of pupil records and student rights. Areas covered range from counselor participation in politics and testifying in court to sharing information with police, college admissions personnel, and employers. There is much to be gained from reading, studying, and discussing the critical incidents. Alternative forms of action are proposed and consequences discussed. In addition, reference materials, community resources, counselor limitations, unique approaches, and the importance of consulting with other members of the pupil personnel team are woven into the conversation.

The author states that the book is primarily a stimulus for discussion. Further, he believes that three major benefits will result from reading and discussing the material: (a) the counselor will gain a greater awareness of ethical problems in day-to-day counseling activities; (b) the counselor will demonstrate greater consistency in evaluating the important variables in ethical problem situations; and (c) the counselor will be better able to carefully consider "advance" tentative decisions in ethical conflict situations. Christiansen has achieved his goals.— *Joseph Kornick, Berea (Ohio) City School District.*

Theories of Counseling edited by Buford Stefflre and W. Harold Grant. Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1972. 326 pp. $9.95.

A shortcoming of many books presenting theories of learning, personality, or counseling and psychotherapy is that the practitioner has considerable difficulty relating the theories he reads about to his daily professional work. Not so with this book. As in the first edition, the authors (and editors) have written about theory with the practicing counselor in mind.

Although each chapter is written by an adherent to a particular theory, the theory is placed within the context of the school and college counselor's reality situation. As a result, the authors have tempered their enthusiasm and properly pointed out the limitations of the theories while explicating their main assumptions, concepts, and methods.

This approach is evident in every part of the book. In chapters 1 and 2 Stefflre and Ratigan, respectively, discuss the function of counseling theory and how it fits within the school setting. Both point out the need to evaluate existing theories and to select or evolve a theory suitable to a situation. Grummon, in discussing client-centered theory, clearly indicates its weaknesses. A similar approach is taken by Williamson, who presents the trait-factor model. King and Bennington note where psychoanalytic applications cannot be made, and Goodstein, in discussing behavioral views of counseling, points out the difficulty in extinguishing anxiety in any "permanent" way.

This is not to say that the authors ignore the strengths and uniquenesses of their theories. As in the first edition, they do this with considerable clarity. (I found this particularly true for Grummon's and Goodstein's chapters.) On the other hand, there are some problems with this edition. It seems unfortunate that Grant left the late Buford Stefflre's chapters essentially untouched. As a result, recent writings about counseling theory have not been incorporated in these two chapters. Further, because all the chapters are written primarily for high school counselors, other practitioners will frequently have to generalize the discussions to their own settings. Despite these shortcomings, however, I believe this book should be of great value to practicing counselors and counselors in training. To paraphrase an old adage, there is nothing so practical as a good theory book. This is one of the best.—*Gerald A. Gladstein, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.*

Facts About APGA

Purpose. The American Personnel and Guidance Association is a scientific and educational nonprofit organization established in 1952 to serve its members and the public through programs designed to advance the broad educational aspects of guidance, counseling, and student personnel work.

Programs. The APGA program is designed to promote and stimulate exchange of professional experience and knowledge through regional, state, and local meetings; through professional journals, monographs, and other publications on topics significant to the field; and through a national convention.

Membership. The Association's membership includes more than 28,000 men and women with bachelor's degrees or advanced degrees in guidance, counseling, and student personnel work. Members are active in many professional settings, including every educational level from kindergarten through graduate school, adult education, community agencies, government, business, and industry.

Divisions. APGA is composed of nine divisions that represent special interests within the profession. They are:

1. American College Personnel Association (ACPA)
2. Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES)
3. National Vocational Guidance Association (NVGA)
4. Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education (SPATE)
5. American School Counselor Association (ASCA)
6. American Rehabilitation Counseling Association (ARCA)
7. Association for Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance (AMEG)
8. National Employment Counselors Association (NECA)
9. Association for Non-White Concerns in Personnel and Guidance (ANWC)

Branches. APGA's program is carried on at state and local levels through 52 state branches, as well as local chapters and state divisions of the national divisions.

Committees. APGA national committees and commissions, such as those on Human Rights, Federal Relations, Ethical Practices, Women, and International Education, reflect Association goals and help to implement its programs.

Professional Information Services. The Association provides members with publications to serve their needs and interests and to help them gain a closer understanding of the theory, philosophy, and practice that form the basis of today's guidance and counseling work.

The 11 journals published by APGA and its divisions are:

The Personnel and Guidance Journal
Journal of College Student Personnel
Counselor Education and Supervision
The Vocational Guidance Quarterly
Journal of the Student Personnel Association
  for Teacher Education
The School Counselor
Elementary School Guidance and Counseling
Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin
Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance
Journal of Employment Counseling
Journal of Non-White Concerns in Personnel
  and Guidance

Also published periodically is the *Guidepost*, the official newsletter of APGA.

Other services APGA provides are production and sale of single publications; sale of films, reprints, and tape recordings; and the resources of a reference library.

Conventions. For the first time APGA will hold three conventions in 1973, with an expected total attendance of 19,000. The convention sites are: San Diego, February 9–12 (national); St. Louis, April 15–19 (regional); and Atlanta, May 23–27 (regional).

Headquarters. APGA Headquarters is located at 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Telephone: (202) 483-4633.

Board of Directors 1972-73
American Personnel
and Guidance Association

Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

   Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

   In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

   Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

   Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

   Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything,* including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.* The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

the personnel and guidance journal

Asian-Americans: The Neglected Minority

the personnel and guidance journal

ARTICLES

SPECIAL FEATURE
ASIAN-AMERICANS: THE NEGLECTED MINORITY

IN THE FIELD

Photos: U.S. Department of Labor (397, 398, 399); Christopher Li (385, 388, 393, 395, 403); Harry Chow (409)
Cover photo: Christopher Li

Feedback

Reactions to the October Special Issue

With reference to your stimulating Special October Issue, "Women and Counselors," I offer the following contribution.

I was busily hanging up a basketful of wash I had just put through our washing machine.

"Why are *you* hanging out the wash?" asked my watchful next-door neighbor's four-and-a-half-year-old daughter.

"Why are you asking?" I parried.

"Why doesn't Ethel [my wife] hang it out?"

"Because she's busy," I explained. (True, but I always hang it out as my assigned chore.)

And if you thought this was the first time that Mary, our four-and-a-half-year-old neighbor, had asked, you would be wrong. This same dialogue has been going on throughout most of this year, each time I hang out the wash. We could be reading our lines from a radio or television script.

Which suggests that many impressions of sex roles in occupations may start at a very early age directly in the family home or in other settings.

In a family home they may be based on observations of the roles of the father and mother in the management of the home, that is, in the division of the various household chores selected by husband and wife to maintain their home as a viable family unit. Such impressions gained in early childhood from a stable, two-parent family environment may be quite resistant to change when the need comes for learning to adjust to new vocational roles of male and female.

In other settings involving the very young (homes with only one parent, hospitals, institutions, foster homes, etc.) impressions may be based on observed vocational roles in those places. Impressions gained from these sources may be somewhat more conducive to learning how to adjust to the changing vocational roles of men and women. The experience of being exposed to a variety of different vocational roles played by both sexes might contribute to such flexibility.

BERT HOENIGMANN
Kings County Hospital Center
Brooklyn, New York

My heartiest congratulations concerning your October issue about women and counselors. As a single person who is working in a professional capacity and a mother who is also a graduate student in the field of guidance, I was especially gratified to read your latest issue as it pertains to me and my sisters.

L. BOLLIGER-QUAST
Addiction Specialist, Oakwood Manor
Peoria, Illinois

I have just returned from two years in the New Guinea bush to find the whole Western world alive with women's liberation from New Zealand to New York. Alive, except for the two professional meetings I attended during the fall of 1972, the New England Guidance and Personnel meeting (900 counselors) and our State Personnel and Guidance meeting in Vermont. I am here to report that not one word was spoken or printed,

planned or spontaneous, in either meeting, about women's lib or its implications!

It was business as usual, with the same old sexist talk about equal opportunities in education for all men, all-male pronouns used in the proposals for action, nomination committees of all males slating all males for office. Even worse, there was absolutely no feeling of sisterhood on the part of female counselors.

I have a plan. Every time any of us plans to attend a regional or state meeting of counselors, write ahead to the program committee and simply ask for a time and place for a women's guidance caucus. If you can get advanced programming, ask the women to bring their copies of the October PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL and have on hand facts about their own state women—their numbers and percentages in counseling, directorships, and administrative jobs and their levels of education and credentials. Ask the women to bring their skills as well as materials from their NOW groups or any consciousness-raising groups. If you can't get the advanced notice, take the room and meet anyway.

We *will* find each other. And we will demonstrate to all of our students, by our Sisterhood, that women can become persons and that counselors may be able to help.

JOYCE SLAYTON MITCHELL
Editor, *The Sisterhood*
(Newsletter of the NOW Task Force on
Women and Religion)
Wolcott, Vermont

Today's young people aren't really very excited about the Protestant ethic. It is likely that they will be just as turned off by their mothers' graspings for wealth and status and power as they have been by their fathers' single-minded devotion to materialism. Some of our youth, in fact, have found a greater treasure—the possibility of communication and understanding between male and female.

Perhaps the counselor stands midway between parent and child, encouraging the strengthening of interpersonal skills while continuing to stress the value of realistic vocational planning.

DOROTHY W. PETRY
White Bear Senior High
White Bear Lake, Minnesota

"It is time for the counseling profession to develop an appropriate career ladder."

"Perceptions of the school counselor's role are varied and the demands made of him are great. . . . Typically, counselors are overburdened with administrative policies and paper work at the expense of the more important professional duties they perform with children, with youth and adults, and with teachers and parents. . . ."

The problem of *Support Personnel in School Guidance Programs* is one which concerns many school systems and guidance programs. "The school counselor is urged to give very careful consideration to this monograph. He should implement the suggestions, and should discuss the potential of support personnel in a guidance program with his principal and his district superintendent."

SUPPORT PERSONNEL IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Editorial

IT'S TIME TO SEE A SPECIALIST

I feel increasingly certain that the time for specialization has come to our field. It is just no longer possible for one person to perform all the guidance and counseling functions that we know how to do—educational assessment, vocational assessment, college planning, career development, personal counseling, consultation, group work, information collection and dissemination, psychological education, etc., etc., etc.

When specialization is proposed, two kinds of objections are usually raised. One is that we would be dividing and compartmentalizing the "whole person." The other is usually expressed as, "I know people who can do all those things reasonably well, so it's just a matter of better training." I think that these two objections are related and can best be responded to together.

Of course, each person is a "whole person," but each one needs different kinds of help at different times, and each should receive the best help we know how to offer. There probably are a small number of unusually gifted people in our field who can provide all those different kinds of help, who have acquired the necessary knowledge and skill in each specialized area, and who have the personal breadth and flexibility, as well as the energy, to switch from one to the other specialized function. But we cannot build an entire field on a model that fits a handful of unusually gifted people.

True, there is a danger of fragmenting the individual, but I feel confident that we can find ways to avoid that. Perhaps the main way is to be certain that there is always one person—a general practitioner, if you will—who is in touch with the "whole person" and who tries to pull the pieces together. That G.P. role might be played by a general counselor, a paraprofessional, a faculty advisor, or even a peer.

In some sparsely settled areas it may not be possible to have specialists available at all. But I suspect that in most parts of the country it would be feasible to have several kinds of specialists either on a full-time basis in the school, college, or agency, or available on a shared basis with other schools, colleges, or agencies.

We already have most of the kinds of know-how that are needed; what we require at the moment is to pool our resources to train and employ all the kinds of specialists needed to bring to individuals and institutions the kinds of advanced service that they need and that we know how to provide. Perhaps if we moved in that direction it might not be so difficult to prove our worth. ■ LG

Using communication exercises in groups

JAMES P. TROTZER

The group leader who uses communication exercises without an adequate rationale may be taking unnecessary risks and jeopardizing the effectiveness of the group. This article presents a rationale for using communication exercises in groups for the purposes of initiation, facilitation, and termination and describes the means by which they are introduced into the group.

Group counseling has developed into one of the more prominent methods used by counselors for promoting the helping process. The professional journals have contributed a great deal of useful information to the counselor interested in using groups (e.g., the Winter 1968 issue of the *Journal of Research and Development in Education* and the April 1971 issue of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL), and several comprehensive and practical texts have been written on the subject (Gazda 1971; Mahler 1969; Ohlsen 1970). Concurrent with these professional treatises has been the consideration of group dynamics by popular communication media (Howard 1968; *Time,* Nov. 9, 1970). Though written conscientiously, material about group counseling in the popular magazines has tended to confuse the public's perception of the group process and function in the school setting. One of the primary elements of this confusion centers around the use of gimmicks, games, or communication exercises in groups. This confusion has been accelerated by the marketing of books such as *Joy* (Shutz 1967), which describe in detail techniques and procedures that, it is claimed, can be used by anyone who reads the book to promote self-discovery and interpersonal learning.

The counselor as a group leader is thus faced with somewhat of a dilemma when considering the use of communication exercises in group counseling. He may feel that certain techniques are helpful in facilitating the group process but be hesitant to use them for fear that his actions will be misconstrued by parents, administrators, teachers, and students. Because of the association of communication exercises with sensitivity training, encounter groups, and other similarly named groups, the counselor needs a rationale that will clarify and explain the use of communication exercises in group counseling.

The purpose of this article is to present such a rationale, one that will provide counselors with a perspective for viewing communication exercises as a useful part of the group counseling process. The intention is to provide a framework for the individualized group style or approach of each counselor and thereby alleviate problems of explanation and justification. In order to relate the use of communication exercises to the group counseling process, the article discusses them in three ways—initiation, facilitation, and termination—based on the purpose of their use and the means by which they are introduced into the group.

INITIATION

Communication exercises can be used in group counseling to initiate or begin the group process. For example, the leader

JAMES P. TROTZER is Assistant Professor of Counselor Education, University of Wisconsin, River Falls.

may ask members to describe themselves in the third person. That is, they are to tell about themselves using their first names and "she" or "he" rather than "I." The leader and members can ask questions about the person being described, but always in the third person (e.g., "What does Toni like about herself?"). This type of activity aids the group members in getting to know one another better. The self-consciousness that accompanies talking about oneself is lessened, because members can step outside themselves and speak more objectively. The purpose for using a communication activity such as this to initiate a group is to give the participants a common experience that brings them together with a common focus and that establishes a basis on which the group process can build.

A second purpose for using communication exercises to initiate is to orient the group toward a topic or focus that will be useful to effective group functioning and the helping process. The intent is not to create or precipitate anything in the group but rather to aid the group members in focusing on themselves or on problems facing them and in learning to function as a group. For example, a group of high school junior boys, formed because of their disruptive classroom behavior, exhibited a great deal of discomfort, resistance, and distrust during their first two sessions. The counselor, feeling that the development of trust was a key factor in the group's effectiveness, suggested the "trust walk" as an initiating activity for the third session. The "trust walk" put the issue of trust into concrete illustration: The boys paired off and walked together, one partner blindfolded and being led by the other partner, and then their roles being reversed. This provided each boy with the experiences of being dependent on another person and being responsible for another person. The focus was on trusting and being trustworthy. When the activity was over, the leader helped the group members express their feelings about the experience and make the transition from being trusting and trustworthy in the activity to being so in the group and in their own lives.

The impact of using communication exercises to start group interaction lessens the discomfort normally experienced by members when an activity is not structured for them by the leader. Members are able to loosen up and relax, and interpersonal barriers are lowered, thus opening channels of communication that can subsequently be used to confront and resolve problems in the group. Also, the simulation experience of the exercise helps the group members learn important aspects of effective interpersonal communication and group dynamics.

The counselor who uses communication exercises to initiate group interaction gains the benefit of group control. He becomes the director and expert who assumes responsibility for the group interaction. Responsibility is thus lifted from the members' shoulders, the counselor becoming the guide and the members becoming the followers. By structuring the group interaction the counselor has a better sense of what is going on and what to expect. This provides the leader with a kind of security that is not as readily accessible to the leader who does not initiate. Those leaders who are more comfortable with structured settings and interaction tend to use more initiating activities.

One drawback to using communication exercises for initiation purposes is that the counselor, by taking responsibility, may create a dependency situation in which members expect the counselor to provide the direction all the time. The members then may not accept responsibility in the group as readily and may tend to rely too heavily on the leader for structure. In order to circumvent this possibility, the leader must be able to facilitate the transition from the initiating exercise to the group experience,

shifting responsibility back to the members. The communication exercise should not be an isolated experience but one that is integrated into the total life cycle of the individual members and the counseling group.

Another difficulty is in choosing activities that will benefit the group. The counselor's choice of communication exercises should be based on his knowledge of both the group process and the group members. For best results, he should choose activities that he is familiar with and has experienced or observed. Even if he does, however, there will still be times when an activity will not be effective. This situation is more likely to be avoided if the leader maintains a tentative attitude when suggesting activities and remains sensitive to the group's reaction as he is describing the activity. His willingness to alter the activity based on the members' reactions usually enhances success. Having more than one activity in mind also gives the leader flexibility in dealing with situations created by members' resistance or by failure of a particular exercise to work.

FACILITATION

The main point to keep in mind when using communication exercises to facilitate the group counseling process is that the exercises should be devised or suggested in response to a situation that has emerged in the group. A typical facilitating activity is roleplaying, a procedure in which a problem is dealt with by having the principals involved act it out in the safety of the group, with the other members participating as actors or observers. For example, a ninth grade girl was discussing her problem of communicating with her parents about dating and curfews. The counselor responded by asking the girl to roleplay a typical conversation between herself and her parents on this topic, using other members as auxiliaries. The counselor directed the roleplaying by keeping the actors in char-

acter and manipulating them through the use of role reversals, alter egos, and role substitutions. When the roleplaying was over, the leader facilitated a follow-up discussion to clarify and consolidate what had transpired relative to the problem and to obtain alternatives that might be used in working it out. In this particular case roleplaying was also used to help the girl try out some alternative approaches to the problem.

Facilitating activities help to clarify problem situations, present alternatives, alleviate anxiety-producing circumstances, and break through impasses that occur in the group. They can be used to perk up the group when normal communication channels break down. They can help a group consider a problem or issue that they feel is relevant. Facilitation procedures should be catalytic, stimulating and enhancing the group interaction without detracting from that interaction.

Facilitating activities are usually more acceptable to group members because they are based directly on the interaction of the group. This increases the probability of satisfaction and success. Since facilitating procedures are designed to provide avenues for reaching goals set by the group and do not define or suggest content, the group experiences an autonomy and responsibility with respect to the nature and focus of the material discussed. Facilitating techniques thus help members learn their responsibility in the group and at the same time help the leader establish guidelines and boundaries within which the group interaction occurs.

The facilitative use of communication exercises is difficult to master. Its effectiveness is dependent on the counselor's spontaneity and sensitivity in here-and-now situations. The leader must exhibit a willingness to follow and respond rather than guide and direct. A facilitative leader allows the group to take responsibility for its own direction and then responds with appropriate activities

to clarify and support that direction. Responding appropriately requires a knowledge and awareness of numerous activities that are usable in groups. This knowledge should include details of procedure, applicability, and probable effect of each activity. The ability to respond with the right activity at the right time has to be developed through experience in the leadership role.

TERMINATION

Communication exercises can be used to bring closure to a group by drawing together what has been experienced and thereby providing a jumping off place for the members. For example, simply asking each member at the end of a session for reactions to the session or to the problem or topic under consideration creates a format in which members can express their feelings before the group disperses. An activity such as this aids both the leader and the members in understanding where the group is and provides a natural ending point.

Terminating activities may be used (a) at the end of individual sessions, (b) when individual members leave, and (c) when the total group is being disbanded. In all instances the major purpose is to consolidate and integrate what has been learned in the group through clarification, review, or reinforcement.

The impact of terminating activities removes some of the awkwardness associated with closure. Members are given the opportunity to express their feelings and reactions without overextending the group time limits. Members, though recognizing that termination is called for, often experience ambivalence about it due to the involvement and intimacy developed in the group. It is this desire to "end but not yet" that triggers the enthusiastic involvement and affect that characterize the ending phase and may even result in members' suggesting their own closing activities. For example, during the final session of a group of college freshmen who were having a difficult time adjusting to a large university, one member suggested that each member show how she or he felt about every other member. Members went around the group expressing their feelings toward each other, first nonverbally and then verbally. This activity clarified the relationships between individual members and also focused on their learning in the area of developing relationships, which had been their presenting problem.

Ambivalent feelings about termination may also affect the group leader. He may feel reluctant to disband a group because of the difficulty and effort that was involved in getting the group to function effectively. Or he may feel that something the group needs for a more complete or well-rounded experience has been overlooked. In either case a closing activity may be useful. For example, during the course of a human relations group composed of high school seniors, the group members had looked critically at themselves and each other, offering constructive criticism to each other but focusing primarily on their weaknesses in relating to others. The leader felt a balance was needed. He also felt a great deal of personal involvement in the group. He therefore suggested a technique called "strength bombardment," in which each member, including the leader, gave every other member *only* positive feedback. This activity helped alleviate some self-doubts that members had about relating to others and served to strike a balance between negative and positive feedback. It brought the group together and helped them realize how much they had learned about themselves and each other, emphasizing that regardless of weaknesses a person may have to work on, there are also strengths and good qualities to sustain him in the process.

Termination activities involve very little risk. The group is usually cohesive and cooperative at this point, ensuring

the effectiveness of most techniques suggested. And since the members recognize that the group is ending, there is little chance of their opening new problems or going overboard emotionally. One drawback is that the high degree of closeness and satisfaction the group may experience may not be present in the individual lives of the members. This could create distortion in their perceptions of the group counseling process and block out in their memories the difficulty and effort that were involved in getting to the ending point. This, however, is a normal phenomenon associated with the completion of most difficult but successful projects and soon wears away.

CONCLUSION

Many communication exercises can be used in all of the ways described above: to initiate, to facilitate, and to terminate. The purpose and method of introduction serve as the significant distinguishing qualities when these exercises are used in group counseling. Communication activities and methods should not be used in group counseling just for the sake of having something to do or because they might be fun. They can and do add flexibility and breadth to the group counseling process, but it must be remembered that the focus of the group is on persons and purposes—in that order—and that communication exercises are only important as they contribute to that focus. ■

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Humanness:
the one essential

STEVEN D. WEBSTER

The author of this article explains his counseling ideology: that the only essential requirement for counseling is humanness, which is the capacity of an individual to be open to another human being without judging and without losing his own individuality.

The nature of man is a most elusive quality. And yet, however difficult it is to pin it down, the attempt to do so must be made. For the ideology of every counselor is precisely how he endeavors to describe the nature of man. A counselor may deny that man has a nature, or he may make of him a god, but counseling cannot occur except as it is viewed through the anthropological glasses of the counselor and the counselee.

Man has been called many things, from a pile of dung to the child of God. He has been placed at opposite ends of the philosophical spectrum, being called everything from a mechanistic nerve complex to Sartre's "useless passion condemned to freedom." He is basically good—or is it that he is essentially evil? He has been studied, dissected, lobotomized, and sanctified.

There is a saying that what enters the mind first remains there the longest. Perhaps this says it best. Perhaps the way in which one views man depends to a great extent on the unconscious influence of long-forgotten goo-goo's and da-da's. Or has modern man developed such a shattering capacity to thrust himself at another that the face of man today reflects more of advertising and TV than of childhood stories?

If a counselor must take a stance (and he should know what his value system is, for his own sake as well as the counselee's), let it be on the side of hope. Despite the terrible evils that man seems to delight in perpetuating, he *is* basically good. Despite the manifest misfortunes that befall man, he *can* exert some control over his environment. Despite his biological, unconscious, and environmental determinations, he *does* have a fundamental freedom. He can opt to exist in and for himself, or he can choose to live beyond himself. The former stance is basic selfishness; the latter, growth. Both approaches to life will be ever present in man, but each person determines his own dominant thrust. Fortunately, there have thus far been enough men who have chosen to live beyond themselves to prevent the rest of us from devouring ourselves.

Man, then, is more than just a being. He is a being with a purpose. That purpose may be himself, religion, Communism, humanitarianism, or any of a dozen other "isms." Man instinctively knows that he must grow, that he must be productive. As a child he is told how and in what capacity he should grow. If he is

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ever to approach maturity, though, he must interiorize external growth influences. He must actively take hold of his own existence and find his own direction. This is not to say that he should ignore the wisdom of the community, but it is to say that the individual is not the community.

Counseling can be an aid in man's search for meaning. The counselor cannot attempt to be a stand-in for the spouse, children, or friends of the counselee. But he can assist the counselee in clarifying alternatives, in groping for values, in understanding the confusion and conflicts inherent in any growth process.

For some counselees there may be no meaningful goal; for others there may be a conflict in goals. Some come to ask how to live; others come because they are tired of living. Some seek a magic wand that they might grow up immediately; others seek reassurance so they never have to risk the pain of growth. Some come to be listened to; others come to listen. All come because they need another human being with whom they can share their hopes, fears, doubts, yearnings.

Thus, the only essential requirement for counseling is humanness. By humanness is meant the capacity of an individual to be open to another human being without judging and without losing his own individuality. Professional training may help in uncovering the humanness of the counselee; the danger is that it can also cloak the humanness of the counselor. A degree does not confer humanness. This is one reason that many people go to nonprofessional counselors such as friends, neighbors, teachers, etc., when they perceive what for them is a problem.

A trained counselor can offer certain advantages to a counselee that an untrained person is unprepared to give. The trained counselor, ideally, has learned how to listen without judging and how to speak without preaching. He has, through conscious effort, acquired some

facilitating aids that can help the counselee to appraise his own situation and develop appropriate behaviors more honestly and perceptively. These aids range from a nod of the head to a direct verbal observation. They include such techniques as clarification, restatement, interpretation, and empathy. All these tools remain merely mechanical without an underlying humanness. With it, they can be effective aids to counseling. The point is that the tools, by themselves, are *not* counseling.

Counseling is not necessarily beneficial to the counselee. It may be harmless, but the possibility also exists that it may be harmful. The amazing aspect of counseling is that, like any human relationship, once trust is established the counselor may make many "technical" mistakes and still have some effectiveness. Hopefully, a trained counselor will utilize his knowledge and skills to the fullest in helping the counselee work through his difficulty.

The demands a counselee makes on a counselor are exhausting. Counseling is a dynamic interaction, and as such it is a two-way street. This is not to say that the counselor identifies with the counselee but rather that the counselor needs total concentration and a heightened sensitivity if he is to "understand with" the counselee, if he is to walk awhile in the counselee's shoes. When a counselor relates in this fashion with one person after another during the day, it should leave him drained.

However man is described, we all share in our humanness. This is both our strength and our weakness. It is our strength because our humanness allows counseling to occur. It is our weakness because our very humanness subjects the counselor to physical, emotional, and intellectual limitations. A counselor cannot extend a magic wand; he *can* reach out to another human being. By reaching out he existentially defines the nature of man in terms of growth, of purpose, of hope. ∎

Obtaining results through modeling

L. SHERRY NYE

This article presents practical applications of the theoretical notion of modeling. Use of live and symbolic models is emphasized, along with the modeling techniques of role reversal and role identification.

Counselors need "the ability to heal the sick, stop the raging storm, walk on water and most of all turn water into delicious wine." This was the statement of a high school counselor (Tal Hooker of Bearden High School, Knoxville, Tennessee) well experienced in dealing with the gamut of youth problems, ranging from "Nothing turns me on at all" through "Where do I go from here?" to "Go to hell."

Counselors at all levels are confronted with similar client expressions on a daily basis. In addition, they are confronted by parents, teachers, and other adults, all of whom wish the counselor could do more things for more people. Budgetary cuts have placed increased pressure on counselors to perform in a systematic and accountable manner. And counselors who find time to read the professional literature are, no doubt, at least a little shaken to discover that counseling may have negative as well as positive effects on clients (Berenson & Carkhuff 1967). Small wonder that many counselors get tired of encouraging students when they themselves receive so little support from outside sources. If counselors are ineffective, it is often because of the kind of tiredness that results from doing the same things year after year. Such fatigue results in further discouragement when counselor practices not only become rou-

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tine but are also found to be ineffective and obsolete. That counselors need to systematically acquire new skills and competencies is not only an inspiring thought but truly a necessity for survival.

One recent innovation in counseling and learning approaches that has been largely overlooked in the literature is the concept of modeling, also referred to as imitative or observational learning (Thoresen 1964). Social modeling procedures involve the provision of live or symbolic models demonstrating desired behavior. By viewing another person's behavior and its rewarding consequences, a client can learn a new or modified skill (Hosford 1969a). A host of research studies have demonstrated the efficacy of modeling procedures for client behavioral and attitudinal change (Bandura 1965; Bandura & McDonald 1963). However, too few counselors make systematic use of modeling techniques a part of their intervention. While modeling can strengthen or weaken already existing behavior, many of the research studies have indicated the utility of modeling as a means of learning new skills and behaviors (Krumboltz & Thoresen 1964; Stilwell & Thoresen 1972). Toward this end, the counselor has two primary kinds of models available: live and symbolic.

LIVE MODELS

Teachers and peers alike can function as live models for clients. Their effect is often limited, however, because the kind of influence they have on a particular client varies. The most direct source of live modeling is the counselor himself. Few would argue with the idea that the client models many of the counselor's behaviors, language patterns, values, and even physical postures. This seems to occur even with the most nondirective counselor (Murray 1954). Furthermore, the counselor's influence on the client and on the interview direction seems to exist even with the most spontaneous counselor (Truax 1966). Given the kind

of impact counselors can have with students, it seems more desirable for the counselor to incorporate his influence in a systematic rather than a haphazard way. It may well be as detrimental to model inappropriate behaviors as it is to reinforce inadvertently the intensity of a client's negative feelings about himself. The counselor can be the best possible live model by demonstrating a desired behavior and arranging optimal conditions for the client to do the same.

While the behavior to be modeled will vary somewhat for each client, all clients can learn from seeing the counselor demonstrate those behaviors that contribute to an effective interpersonal relationship. As Thompson and Poppen (1972) observed, one of the crucial needs of today's youth is the development of important relationships with other students and with significant adults.

The principle of *accountability* is illustrated by a recent development called Integrity Therapy (Drakeford 1968), designed to help clients realize that they are at least partially accountable for their life situations. Much of this realization can be accomplished through the client's observation of the counselor as a responsible person, one who actively displays personal accountability as a part of the counseling process. This kind of counselor meets the client when he makes a commitment to do so, follows through on obtaining any information he promises the client, and accepts responsibility for his behavior by not complaining or making excuses for his problems.

Students are also emphasizing the desirability of a counselor who comes through as a real person instead of an objective professional. Recent theorists (Glasser 1965; Missildine 1963) have emphasized the importance of the counselor's *involvement* with the client. In an age that has been characterized by depersonalization and alienation (May 1969), behaviors associated with involvement are imperative for today's students.

The behaviors of the involved counselor are quite different from those of the counselor who primarily listens and reflects. For instance:

• The involved counselor takes risks. In addition to reflecting client content, he demonstrates confrontation and encountering. That is, he does not hesitate to describe mixed messages and contradictions in the client's behavior for fear that the client will reject him. At the same time he invites the client to "tell it like it is."

• The involved counselor is not afraid to reveal himself. He gives direct answers in response to client questions. He also demonstrates self-disclosure; i.e., he shares some of his feelings with the client.

• The involved counselor takes a stand. Instead of maintaining silence about issues, he sometimes shares his own values with the client, perhaps giving the client another alternative to consider and thereby increasing the client's freedom.

• The involved counselor does not have to focus exclusively on feelings, thoughts, or behaviors. He is just as interested in what the client is thinking and doing as in what the client is feeling. He thus models not only acceptance of feelings but problem solving skills and behavioral action as well.

The counselor as a *relationship model* can assist the client in acquiring new relationship skills that he can apply to his significant others outside the counseling room. Demonstrating this model is a most effective way to teach the client the principle "you get what you give." As the client begins to give different kinds of communication and behaviors as input into his relationships, he will start getting more of the same. Through modeling the client learns ways to change his environment so that it will produce the kinds of results he needs and desires. At the same time this encourages the client to develop means of reinforcement in addition to the counselor. Learning these kinds of skills will enable the client to

make it on his own in person-to-person interactions.

The counselor's functioning effectively as a live model requires systematic efforts to demonstrate the desired skills and behaviors. Further, the counselor must be perceived by the client as an important and nurturing human being (Bandura 1961; Rogers 1951). Counselors are often faced with clients who, for one reason or another, reject them as models. Additionally, counselors sometimes find it difficult to control their own behavior in order to provide systematic models. These factors sometimes limit the effectiveness of live models.

SYMBOLIC MODELS

A second kind of process allowing for more direct control of the desired behaviors is the use of symbolic models. These can be provided through written materials, audiotapes, videotapes, and films. Symbolic models can be used with groups and individual students to help them learn any number of new behaviors. The desired skills might be those involved in academic success, such as using good study habits, speaking up in class, increasing task-oriented behavior in the classroom, and participating in group discussions. Recent research (Krumboltz & Schroeder 1965; Schroeder 1964; Thoresen 1964; Thoresen & Hamilton 1969) has also demonstrated the efficacy of symbolic modeling for teaching those behaviors necessary for vocational and educational planning. These include information seeking behaviors, decision making skills, and job interviewing skills. Additional uses of symbolic models in the counselor's work are endless. Written and taped material on classroom management procedures can help teachers learn to use behavioral techniques in the classroom (Hosford 1969b). Symbolic models would be a most effective way to teach communication skills to parent groups. Using symbolic models can also get a group started; having the group listen to another group prior to its beginning helps the members identify ground rules and discussion topics.

A Three-Step Process

Recent studies (Eisenberg & Delaney 1970; Myrick 1969) have demonstrated that symbolic modeling alone, without the addition of any other procedures, is effective in producing behavioral change. Symbolic models may be most beneficial when incorporated into three steps.

The first step involves the presentation of some written material about the skill being learned. The material should concisely describe the skill and present examples of it. A short programmed text is a good way to present a written symbolic model. However, the technique of bibliotherapy (Delaney & Eisenberg 1972) can also be used; in this technique the counselor suggests to the client a book that portrays a character or situation representing some form of achievement related to the client's goal.

The second step of the process involves the presentation of an audiotape, videotape, or film in which one or more individuals illustrates the behavior under consideration. In developing the tape, the counselor can obtain the assistance of several students to demonstrate the target behavior. Not only is this an excellent way to get more students involved, but it also provides a more effective model by using peers. Research indicates that in choosing peers for models, a prime consideration should be the models' similarity to those clients who will be watching them (Kagan & Mussen 1956; Kagan, Pearson & Welsh 1965), since this provides for closer identification with the model. Recent studies (Thoresen, Hosford & Krumboltz 1970; Thoresen & Krumboltz 1968) suggest that consideration of peer models should also include such factors as age, socioeconomic status, ethnic group, grade level, and sex.

The third step involves getting the client to try out the new behavior under

observation; this is referred to as practice or rehearsal. It gives the client an opportunity to perform the skill in a relatively nonthreatening situation. Although many counselors try to accomplish this objective through roleplaying, this technique is often unsuccessful because of the vagueness and generality accompanying most roleplaying situations. Success is more likely through use of a role reversal strategy. The first step in role reversal involves the counselor's taking the part of the client and demonstrating the desired behavior. Then the client is asked to perform the behavior. In this way the client benefits from viewing the counselor as a model and from experiencing the way people are likely to be affected by the behavior being rehearsed. Using role reversal after the presentation of symbolic models is more likely to elicit goal-oriented behavior because it assists the client in translating the role into concrete actions under a variety of circumstances. It also gives the counselor an opportunity to systematically reward the client's progress toward his goal.

ROLE IDENTIFICATION

Another modeling procedure used to weaken deviant behavior and suggest alternative behaviors is role identification. Counselors increasingly find themselves concerned with students who are involved in disruptive classroom behavior, the sale and use of narcotics, fighting, stealing, and so forth. What the counselor often does not realize in dealing with these students is that the primary models they have are also modeling similar behavior patterns. Lack of models behaving in socially appropriate ways may only maintain the deviant behavior. As Hosford observed:

Counselors should be aware of sources of imitative learning within home and school settings. When individuals who act atypically (deviant) are exposed only to others who also act atypically, is it any wonder that these students soon acquire larger repertoires of deviant behavior? If we expect deviant-acting students to learn

more positive ways of behaving, we should not expose them exclusively to models who demonstrate consistent examples of deviant behavior [1969a, p. 21].

In dealing with atypical behavior patterns, modeling procedures can be employed to transmit, elicit, and support modes of responses incompatible with the deviant or maladjusted behavior. Evidence from laboratory studies (Ayllon & Haughton 1964; Bandura 1965; Berkowitz 1969) indicates that traditional "talk" counseling, relying heavily on catharsis, often serves to maintain and even increase deviant behavior. In contrast, a counselor could use a social modeling approach that concentrates on strengthening alternative patterns of behavior.

Translating this to school settings, many counselors complain about students who engage in behavior that appears harmful to themselves or others and who seem resistant to change. Based on modeling principles, the counselor could instruct the client to place himself in a situation similar to that of the person he is hurting and imagine all the possible unpleasant consequences. For example, a student who beats up other students for money is often unaware of the painful consequences of his actions. Counselors often ask this client, "How do you think it makes John feel when you do this to him?" This technique, however, does not seem as effective as getting the client to imagine himself as the other person. In other words, it is more helpful to ask, "What would it be like for you to be beaten up and badly hurt?" Use of the role identification strategy can arouse appropriate emotional responses by making the client identify with and imagine those cues associated with the modeled situation.

CONCLUSION

It is perhaps somewhat ironic for us to continue our long discussions and arguments concerning the values of differential counseling theories when the needs

of today's students are so apparent. It is time to focus instead on client results. What can be done that works with students? What can be done that helps clients reach their goals? Indeed, the attrition rate of counselors would no doubt be lessened if counselors were encouraged by the results of their work with clients in terms of seeing actual change. A counselor who can use specific strategies such as modeling to get results is not only more effective but also more encouraged because both he and his clients can see direct benefits from the counselor's intervention. And, after all, that's what counseling is really all about. ■

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One thing leads to another. Back in November 1971, Derald Sue sent us the revised manuscript of an article he co-authored with his brother Stanley; we accepted it with pleasure and published it in the April 1972 issue under the title "Counseling Chinese-Americans." With his revision Derald sent a letter suggesting that P&G sponsor a special issue on Asian-Americans.

At that point we knew very little about Derald, certainly not enough to make a judgment about his ability to organize and edit such an ambitious project. I suggested that he send us a detailed proposal and some biographical information for review by the Editorial Board.

The outline turned out to be one of the best we had ever seen, and the Board's consensus was that we accept the proposal but reduced in scope—a Special Feature rather than a Special Issue—because this is a topic that would not interest all readers to the same extent.

What I have learned about Derald Sue, in addition to the fact that he is Chinese-American and has three brothers who are clinical psychologists, is that he is well organized, deeply committed, and a good judge of both ideas and writing. I also learned that Derald was just under 30 when he began to work on this Feature, that he has a PhD in counseling psychology from the University of Oregon, and that he has worked at a veterans hospital, a county mental health clinic, a suicide prevention center, and, more recently, as a counselor and instructor at the University of California—Berkeley. This past September he accepted an interesting and challenging position at the University of Santa Clara.

Once again it is a pleasure to bring new voices to the pages of P&G and to give special attention to the needs of one of the subcultures in America that is in the process of struggling with its identity and its development. We hope that this Special Feature will help our readers to help them. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*

Understanding Asian-Americans:

Derald Wing Sue

The Special Feature of this month's PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL was developed because we feel strongly that Asians of Chinese, Japanese, and Filipino ancestry are one of the most neglected minorities in America. Our cultural heritage as Asians, our historical experience in a racist society, and our unique concerns are relatively unknown to the American public. In fact, we have frequently been described as "the most silent minority," "the quiet Americans," the "model minority." Cultural values dictating against self-assertion and open expression of thoughts and feelings to "outsiders" have contributed to this image.

The time has long passed in which we, as Asian-Americans, can remain passive participants waiting for things to improve. We need to speak out against injustices and actively seek changes that will preserve our sense of ethnic identity. If the nearly 1,370,000 Asians in America are to have a choice in determining whether to retain certain ethnic values or to assimilate, then Asian values prohibiting outspokenness may not be functional in today's world of confrontation politics. Asian-Americans must choose to shape their own identities, or those in the American majority will choose and decide an identity for them.

The following articles represent a collaborative effort of Asian-Americans to reveal how certain cultural values and the forces of racism have served to shape and define our life styles. Hopefully, you, the readers, will gain a greater understanding of the Asian experience in America and its implications for your work. We ask you to join us in our endeavor to enlighten counselors, educators, and personnel workers about the detrimental consequences of a society that has too long been intolerant of differing life styles. Only in an enlightened atmosphere, free of misunderstandings, can effective changes be implemented. ■ *Derald Wing Sue, Guest Editor for this issue*

The Neglected Minority

An Overview

DERALD WING SUE

DAVID SUE

It has been our experience that most people, including educators, counselors, and pupil personnel workers, believe that Asians in America are experiencing few adjustment difficulties in society and are functioning effectively. Scores of articles in magazines and newspapers attest to our success in American society. They are able to point to our high levels of educational attainment, reportedly low rates of juvenile delinquency, and low rates of psychiatric contact as evidence for their position.
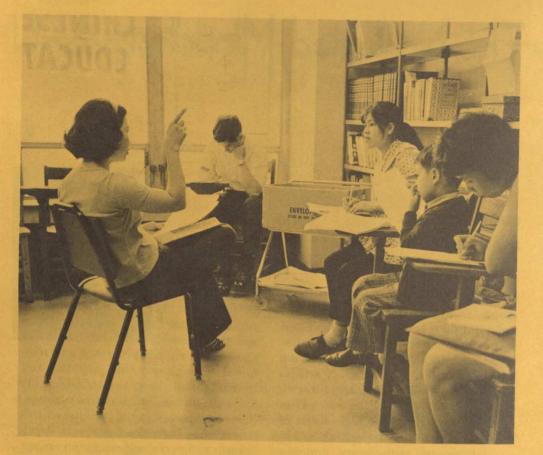
These facts seem ironic in view of the massive discrimination and prejudice that have historically been leveled against Asians in America. Denied the rights of citizenship, forbidden to own land, locked in concentration camps, maligned, mistreated, and massacred, we have been subjected to the most humiliating and appalling treatment over accorded any immigrant group. The prevalent belief that Asian-Americans are somehow immune to the effects of white racism has served to mask problems such as educational-vocational deficiencies, counseling inadequacies, culture conflicts, unemployment, poverty, and mental illness. Counselors and educators who believe that Asian-Americans experience few adjustment difficulties in society fail to understand the masking effect of Asian cultural imperatives dictating against self-disclosure. Watanabe's excellent discussion in this issue about Asian-American self-expression points out how Asian cultural values, complemented and reinforced through years of prejudice and discrimination, have taught Asians the value of silence and inconspicuousness. The consequence of the teaching of this "value" has been the inadequate development of forceful self-expression among many Asian-Americans, which has greatly restricted their academic, vocational, and personality development.

THE SUCCESS MYTH

The myth that Asians have been successful in white society seems to serve three purposes. First, it represents an attempt to reaffirm the belief that any group, regardless of race, creed, or color, can succeed in a "democratic" society *if they work hard enough*. The underlying assumption in this statement is that lack of success is due to intrinsic factors (racial inferiority, incompatible value systems, etc.) rather than to the racist nature of

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society. Such is the case when the low achievement level of blacks is blamed on their poor heredity or their laziness. Second, the success myth has operated to create friction between Asians and other minority groups. In a competitive, racist society that pits people against one another (whites over minorities, rich over poor, male over female, etc.) this forced competition is seen by many as a "divide and conquer" technique often used by those in power. At a time when many oppressed minorities are attempting to unite into a Third World Movement to gain some self-determination and power over their own lives, minorities are especially sensitive to this type of technique. Third, the belief that Asian-Americans are problem-free has shortchanged us from obtaining needed moral and financial assistance from education, business, government, and industry. Indeed, Asian-

Americans are frequently not categorized as a minority or disadvantaged group and are therefore ineligible for many existing special programs.

Although it cannot be denied that may of us have obtained middle class status, the success myth does injustice to the many Asians in America who are suffering from poverty, unemployment, and extreme personal distress. For example, there is now widespread recognition that, apart from their serving as tourist attractions, Chinatowns in San Francisco and New York are ghetto areas. Statistics support the fact that the San Francisco Chinatown has the second greatest population density for its size in the country, second only to Harlem. Among employment-age youths in the San Francisco Chinatown, the unemployment rate approaches 13 percent, and the rates of tuberculosis and suicides there

are higher than the national average. As of this writing, 10 recent murders have been traced to Chinese juvenile gangs operating in Chinatown.

CULTURAL RACISM

Jones (1972) defined cultural racism as "the individual and institutional expression of the superiority of one race's cultural heritage over that of another race [p. 6]." Although there is nothing inherently wrong in acculturation and assimilation, Jones believes that "when it is forced by a powerful group on a less powerful one, it constitutes a restriction of choice; hence it is no longer subject to the values of natural order [p. 166]." Asian-Americans, constantly bombarded by the mass media and the people around them upholding Western values as superior to theirs, develop a lowered sense of self-esteem and of pride in racial and cultural identity. Seen in this light, culture conflicts may actually be manifestations of cultural racism. Miyamoto's poem "What Are You?" in this issue is a sad and disturbing commentary exposing the hypocrisy in American society. Callao points out in this issue how he experienced such a conflict when he was younger and how, even as a counselor, he must still contend with certain stereotyped notions expected by his clients and colleagues.

Since it is impossible for any groups or individuals to live happily with themselves and others when they possess little self-respect or self-esteem, it is understandable that Asians, blacks, Chicanos, and other disadvantaged groups are raising their voices in anger and frustration. To accept the dictates of a racist society is to compromise with dignity. As Kagiwada and Fujimoto note in their article in this issue, the emergence of Asian-American studies in higher education is an attempt by Asian-Americans to gain the self-respect denied them by white society. Feelings of powerlessness, humiliation, and degradation have resulted in

a group movement aimed at rectifying injustices and reversing the trend of negativity toward Asian-Americans. Such a program and its effectiveness are aptly demonstrated in the section of this Special Feature entitled "Asians Are . . .," which is comprised of thoughts and poems written by both Asian and non-Asian fifth and sixth graders who took a short course on Asian-American studies.

With respect to counseling and guidance, cultural racism has operated to distort and restrict the life styles of Asians in America. Counseling has failed to meet adequately the mental health needs of Asian-Americans. Cultural influences affecting personality formation and the manifestation of behavior disorders are infrequently part of counselor education programs. When minority group experiences are discussed, they are generally seen and analyzed from the "white perspective." Kaneshige's article in this issue on group counseling and interaction nicely illustrates how the implicit assumptions of counseling may be antagonistic to the values held by students of Asian ancestry. He presents a good case for the consideration of cultural factors in the interpretation of behaviors in group settings. Although Asian-Americans also interpret behaviors from their own frame of reference, counselors should keep in mind that it is generally the evaluations of the host society that do the greatest damage to a group's sense of self-esteem and self-worth.

In conclusion, Asian-Americans are definitely offered a more restricted sense of identity, choice of vocations and jobs, and educational opportunities. Although much of this problem is rooted in Asian cultural values, a large part of it stems from the discriminatory practices in our society that have undermined and distorted the Asian-American experience. ∎

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Self-Expression and the Asian-American Experience

COLIN WATANABE

A student of Asian descent entering the University of California—Berkeley is twice as likely to fail the Subject A examination, a test of basic English proficiency, as is his non-Asian classmate. According to a survey conducted during the spring of 1971 by that university's Asian Studies Division, out of a random sample of 300 students of Asian descent, over half (53 percent) failed to demonstrate competence in college-level reading and composition, compared to 25 percent of the general campus population.

The difficulties with college reading and composition are significant symptoms of a much larger problem: an antipathy toward articulation and an aversion for assertion. Asian-Americans eschew occupations calling for forceful self-expression. A study of majors chosen by Asian students showed that during the period from 1961 to 1968, 74.3 percent of American-born Chinese males and 68.2 percent of American-born Japanese males went into either engineering or the physical sciences, disciplines requiring a minimum of self-expression (Chu 1971).

Asians seem not to desire or are unable to find employment in the public media. In Los Angeles, which has an Asian population of well over 125,000 (2 percent) and seven local television stations, only one person of Asian ancestry is employed

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as an on-the-air personality. Only two Asians appear—infrequently—on Bay Area television, despite the presence of over 100,000 Asians in San Francisco, about 15 percent of the city's population.

The average reader, even one of Asian descent, would be hard-pressed to name even one Asian-American novelist, poet, or writer of any sort. Fewer than a dozen popular (as opposed to technical) books have been authored by Asian-Americans over the past decade. Except in ethnic publications, Asian-Americans are rarely represented in journalism.

The problem of the inarticulate, unassertive Asian is widely attributed to a deficiency in language skills, with the tacit assumption that teaching those skills would eliminate the problem. However, creative and forceful self-expression that reflects the unique perceptions, ponderings, and passions of its creator calls for more than a mechanical mastery of language skills. Such expression springs only from a strong sense of self; exposing one's ego demands considerable inner strength. In addition to a strong, internally centered locus of interpretation and evaluation, a prospective writer or orator must feel that sharing his thoughts and feelings with others is productive and rewarding.

When considered in this context, the reasons for pervasive Asian reticence become clearer. The Asian individual has to contend with cultural injunctions that discourage the development of a strong sense of self and restrict the form and function of self-expression. The Asian

influence has been strengthened, rather than weakened, by the social, cultural, economic, and political isolation imposed by a racist American society. Furthermore, Asian experiences with that racist society, a society that punished those who dared to speak out or call attention to themselves, has shown that self-assertion often only arouses enmity.

CULTURAL INFLUENCES

Beginning in the mid-nineteenth century, the lure of the Mountain of Gold, intensified by social upheaval and natural disasters in China and Japan, began drawing the excess populations of Asia. The Asian immigrant brought with him the cultural trappings of a rigid social order in which he generally occupied the lowest position. His cultural baggage included many of the customs and beliefs responsible for boundary maintenance and social control in a society having clearly defined hierarchies of class and status. The doctrine of filial piety and an unquestioning respect for and deference to authority were among the fundamental beliefs of Asian society. The individual was expected to acquiesce to familial and social authority, even to the point of sacrificing his personal desires and ambitions. These beliefs permeated all of Asian society, coloring every human relationship.

In addition to his being conscious of authority, the Asian individual became very aware of his social milieu. Greatly limited social and economic mobility made him acutely conscious of his peer group, a group with which he would probably spend his entire life. He became highly sensitive to the opinions of his peers and allowed the social nexus to define his thoughts, feelings, and actions. In the interest of social solidarity he subordinated himself to the group, suppressing and restraining any possibly disruptive emotions and opinions.

Fatalism, a calm acceptance of one's lot, was another belief prevalent in the Asian culture of that day. Constantly buffeted by the forces of nature and society, over which he clearly had no control, the Asian individual adopted a philosophic detachment and resignation that allowed him to accept his fate with equanimity. Instead of trying to fathom underlying meanings in events, the Asian met life pragmatically. He did not try to understand and control his environment and create his own opportunities; instead he became adept at making the most of existing situations.

Placed at the mercy of his environment by his society, the Asian individual became in his own eyes a powerless nonentity whose life style was properly dictated by his superiors, his peers, and other external influences. Thoughts of tailoring the fabric of his environment to fit him rarely occurred; the Asian individual was content to wear whatever mantle his society dictated, even if it chafed. Ironically, the very factor that contributed to his early success in America—his adaptability—would later become a serious handicap. Cultural preferences for acquiescence and conformity thwarted the development of a strong sense of individuality and of individual control of personal destiny, qualities that underlie forceful self-expression. In an alien culture that encouraged—indeed, demanded—aggressive, outspoken individualism and self-expression, the Asian could respond only with silence.

THE ASIAN-AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

No immigrant encountered higher walls of prejudice and discrimination than did the Asian. Forbidden to own land or live where he pleased, he lived in segregated communities. Denied employment, except in the most onerous and menial jobs, he created industry in his own community. Snubbed and ostracized by the majority society, he created his own social, cultural, religious, educational, and

political institutions and organizations. In the closed society of the ethnic ghetto, Old World values—unquestioning respect for and deference to authority, subordination of the individual to the group, and an acceptance of powerlessness and a resignation to one's fate—were preserved and strengthened.

Once again the Asian individual found himself subordinated to a rigid social order with a definite hierarchy of authority. Behind barriers erected to cushion the impact of racism, the rules, roles, and relationships became fixed. The Asian colonists, excluded from participation in the ongoing life of both America and their native lands, experienced a dearth of new ideas and became ingrown and stagnant. Anyone who rocked the boat by defying the established order risked censure by his family, friends, and community.

Experiences with the larger society convinced the Asian immigrant of the value of silence and inconspicuousness. He had to endure verbal and physical assaults in silence because any resistance only invited harsher retaliation. Fear of attracting attention was particularly acute among the thousands of immigrants who came to America illegally to circumvent genocidal immigration laws designed to decimate the Asian colonies by preventing family formation (Lyman 1970). If caught, they had little hope for justice; the California Supreme Court ruled in 1854 that their testimony was inadmissible as evidence. Despite repeated promises of amnesty, fear and distrust lingers today among the descendants of those immigrants and helps account not only for Asians' silence but also for their reluctance, even in the face of dire need, to turn to governmental agencies for aid.
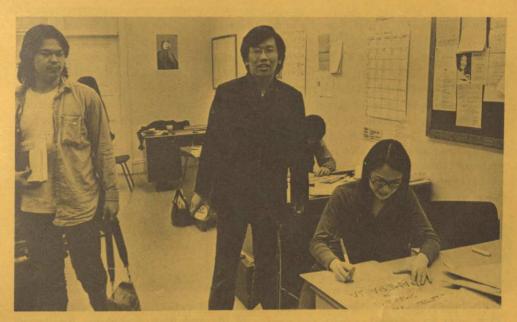
Reminded daily of his cultural and intellectual inferiority and deprived of the opportunity to cultivate interests and skills unrelated to survival, the Asian-American lost the will and ability to express himself forcefully and creatively.

His systematic exclusion from positions of leadership reinforced his sense of powerlessness and inferiority and further hindered his developing the skills and attitudes required for self-assertion.

EDUCATION

The second class status of the Asian-American is also reflected in the educational opportunities he is accorded. Because of stereotype-inspired misconceptions about his preferences and abilities, the Asian student is not only offered a more restricted choice of academic and vocational careers, he also finds his choice of schools limited to inferior, segregated institutions (Lyman 1970). Even Asian students attending well-supported and well-maintained schools suffer intellectual and emotional isolation because of the almost total neglect of the Asian-American experience in the curriculum. Kane (1970), after an extensive review of the treatment of minorities in high school social studies textbooks, concluded:

Asiatic minorities, such as those of Chinese and Japanese origin or descent, were frequently treated in a manner implying they were racially inferior. Offensive generalizations were applied to such groups and positive material about their current status and contributions was omitted.... None of the forty-five texts examined gave equal treatment in terms of factual information on Americans of Asiatic origin compared to that accorded other groups in the United States [pp. 112, 129].

The Asian student often pays a high price in adapting himself to an Anglo-Saxon-oriented school system. When he first enters school, he is likely to find himself in strange and confusing surroundings. Until he starts kindergarten, many of his cultural and social references have been strongly influenced by his Asian culture. Now, in an Anglo-dominated school system, none of these references exist. He often finds himself ill prepared and intimidated by the classroom environment. Teachers who do not understand his situation—and a cur-

riculum that ignores his people—only heighten his feelings of isolation and inferiority. The Asian student comes to see ethnicity as a handicap and tries to reject the Asian part of himself in a vain effort to conform to the Occidental mold. He tries to deny his perceptions, his emotions, his thoughts, his very appearance, because he is "different" and he is told in many subtle and not so subtle ways that the system will not tolerate this difference. In the process he destroys traits that, in a freer environment, could be sources of personal and intellectual strength.

ASIAN-AMERICAN COMMUNICATION PATTERNS

Many forces shape Asian-American communication patterns. Cultural and linguistic influences, intensified in a jingoistic and xenophobic American society, have limited Asian-American self-expression. Barred from positions requiring self-assertion and punished by both his own community and the larger society for asserting himself, the Asian-American has seen little value in the cultivation of language skills. Asian and American culture have conspired to limit the uses of

language and deprive the Asian-American of the opportunity to enrich his life through free and open verbal and written communication.

Parent-Child Communication

Argumentation is almost unheard of in traditional families; clearly defined roles of dominance and deference virtually rule out argumentation and debate. The role of the parent is to lay down the law; the duty of the child is to listen and obey. Communication flows one way, from parent to child. Directive messages predominate, and exchanges are generally brief and perfunctory. Constantly battered by prohibitions and commands, the Asian child begins to see himself as an obeyer rather than a chooser. In a study of the influence of parent-child interaction on verbal development, Plumer (1971) found that superior verbal ability in a child depends on (a) interactions where the child's contributions predominate and (b) a family environment in which the child feels his utterances can influence his parents. In most Asian-American homes neither of these conditions exists.

Racism also contributes to the limiting

of communication between parents and their children. Parents, hoping to reduce the handicap of ethnicity for their children, encourage them to adopt the values of the majority culture. Asian values are brushed aside in favor of more acceptable Occidental customs. Contacts with the majority soon reinforce parents' subtle directive to renounce rather than embrace ethnicity. The estrangement of youth from their elders and the subsequent diminution of communication is a poignant consequence of the intensification of intergenerational cultural and linguistic differences through pressures to become "Americanized."

On the one hand racism splits the Asian-American family; on the other it often forces family members to rely on each other for personal security and support. These divergent forces create strange patterns of interaction within Asian-American families. Just as in pre-immigration China and Japan, where ties of class and status restricted social mobility, the Asian-American finds himself bound to his family, this time by chains forged by his realization that he can turn only to them for many of his personal needs. In the interest of family harmony he carefully avoids any potentially divisive activity, including argumentation and debate. He talks only about "safe" subjects and keeps discussions on a superficial, nonthreatening level. The breach between generations makes many topics controversial and therefore taboo and further restricts the already narrow range of discussion topics, reducing the flow of interpersonal communication within many Asian-American families to an insipid trickle.

Peer Group Communication

Many of the forces responsible for the limitation of communication within the family continue to operate when family members interact with their peers. The Asian-American continues to rely primarily on others of Asian descent for his

social needs. His circle of Asian friends, like his family, is a haven for him. Safe communication again prevails. The Asian individual often hesitates to try new modes of interaction, particularly those modeled after the majority culture, for fear that his friends will ostracize him for "putting on airs." He wishes to avoid creating the impression that the ways of the group are not good enough for him, which would alienate his Asian friends. He sees little purpose in cultivating new interests and exploring new life styles, because this may result in his expulsion from the group he relies on for his social needs.

Classroom Communication

Communication habits from other areas of life and their underlying framework of values and expectations profoundly influence the Asian-American's classroom deportment. The Asian student often becomes aware of his linguistic inadequacies, a consequence of the limited opportunities he has to develop and polish his language skills, and is intimidated into silence.

All students, even those whose parents do not engage in the invidious practice of using peers as whips or carrots, soon discover that teachers, consciously or unconsciously, pit students against each other. Grade curves, competition for honors, awards, and scholarships, and the struggle to get into college where enrollments are limited constantly remind a student that he is matched against his classmates in a contest where the stakes are high. The Asian student often feels the competitive pressures more intensely than his nonethnic classmates because he is constantly told by his parents, teachers, counselors, and friends that education is his only hope for social acceptance and financial security.

Not only does the Asian student feel the pressure of competition more keenly than others; he also feels the sting of failure more sharply. In addition to

dooming him to a marginal social and economic existence, failure often brings intense feelings of shame and guilt. The Asian student is often told by his parents that his failure brings shame not only to himself but also to his family and his race. Furthermore, he realizes that his parents have made many sacrifices so that he can go to school. They would be deeply disappointed and hurt by his failure. This overwhelming fear of failure, although it relentlessly drives the Asian student to excel, cuts him off from his classmates.

Teachers often expect students of Asian descent to live up to all sorts of stereotype-inspired expectations. Some teachers expect him to perform brilliantly, especially in math and the sciences. Even teachers without such expectations still feel that the Asian student should work diligently and in a docile manner. After all, aren't all Asians hardworking and obsequious? With pressures to excel coming from all sides, many Asian students have neither the time nor the inclination to communicate with classmates.

The Asian student has little choice but to jump into the educational pressure cooker. Even those whose interests and

career objectives lie outside the boundaries of orthodox education are forced into school by parental and social pressures. For most students, even those with definite educational objectives, the Anglo-oriented curriculum contains little, if anything, of personal significance. Students begin to view the educational experience not as a personally enriching adventure that they gladly and voluntarily undertake but as a confinement in a prisonlike institution. Enclosed by walls of social and economic necessity and guarded by parents, teachers, and friends who riddle would-be escapees with bullets of shame and guilt, the Asian student sees no way out and resigns himself to his fate. His performance in class reflects his feelings. His classroom discussion is forced, superficial, dull; his papers are usually perfunctory, uninspired, weak. He sometimes tries to preserve what he can of his self-respect and hides his talents from his jailers, reserving what is left of his creative abilities for situations that have more personal meaning. Instead of inspiring creativity and furthering personal development, the school experience joins other societal forces to quash Asian self-esteem and self-confidence.

CONCLUSIONS

Asian culture, strengthened and complemented by over a century of American racism, has created an environment where free and open communication has been virtually impossible. Doctrines of racial supremacy have created institutions, organizations, and social practices that have operated to degrade, disadvantage, and demoralize the Asian individual, leaving deep emotional and psychological wounds that undermine his self-esteem and self-confidence, the driving forces of self-expression. Even today Asian-Americans are generally reluctant to call attention to themselves lest they invite ridicule or hostility.

Years of externally and internally imposed silence have created the widespread stereotype of the uncomplaining, unfeeling, unexpressive Asian who is facile with numbers and clever with his hands but clumsy with words. Even Asians themselves believe this pernicious stereotype. Many Asian students, after hearing this myth repeated by parents and high school and college counselors, become fully convinced that they can neither write nor speak. Their systematic preference for academic disciplines—mathematics, physics, engineering, and the biological sciences—which require a minimum of self-expression, helps support this hypothesis.

The fact that Asian-American students have unique characteristics and problems has been confirmed by recent investigations (Sue & Kirk 1972; Sue & Sue 1972). Indicators of socioemotional adjustment have revealed that Asian-American students are more conforming, are more inhibited, are less independent, and experience more loneliness and anxiety than other students. Academic indicators have confirmed Asian-Americans' lower development of verbal skills.

As far as the Asian student is concerned, the school system fails in the primary task of education: that of building creative and self-directed individuals who are equal to the continually changing intellectual and emotional demands of their environment. In some cases, in fact, schools do not even provide the student with basic tools for survival.

The crisis in education is particularly acute today, when, because of the relaxation of the quota system of immigration in 1965, ever-increasing numbers of immigrants are coming from Hong Kong and Taiwan. Every year between 2,500 and 3,000 new immigrants settle in San Francisco's already overcrowded Chinatown (Bay Area Social Planning Council 1971).

For recent immigrant and American-born alike, education is the key that can unlock the door to free and open communication. However, existing institutions must change radically to meet this responsibility. Only then can they help to free the Asian-American from his cultural and social prison and introduce him to the richness of the world of words. ∎

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Asians are...

"Asians Are . . .," by fifth and sixth grade children from Franklin School, Berkeley, California, was a class project aimed at developing children's perceptions and awareness of Asian-Americans. Under the guidance of two teachers, Carole Aoyagi and Alexander Yamato, discussions supplemented by field trips explored the history and current status of Asians in America. The two teachers say this about the project:

"'Asians Are . . .' is the product of a year's work in Asian-American history. We are one of four classes at Franklin School that teaches a course in Asian Studies instead of the regular social studies, California history. The other class subjects studied consisted of the regular class material for the fourth through sixth grades.

"Our class was composed of fifth and sixth graders and was balanced ethnically. Approximately one-third of the students were Asians, one-third blacks, and one-third whites. We are part of the Experimental Studies Program in the Berkeley Public Schools, which is financed federally.

"After a year of teaching in the Asian Studies class, we have found that it can be a most rewarding experience for teachers, students, and parents."

The writings and poems on the next two pages by children in these classes show a remarkable understanding of and sensitivity to racial and social issues. The empathic ability of non-Asian classmates to identify with their Asian counterparts is truly rewarding to see. Again, it seems to indicate that children, when given the correct facts, can free themselves from biases that adults find so difficult to overcome. ■ *Derald Wing Sue*

Yellow is the sun coming
    up in the morning
And the sun coming down
    in the evening.
Yellow is a house being painted.
Yellow is the color of
    some pencils.
Yellow is the sunset.
Yellow is the sunrise.
Yellow is the color of
    some paper.
It's the peeling of a
    grapefruit or lemon.
Yellow is in the shine of
    a light.
Yellow is a banana.
Yellow is a color that
    is very bright to
    everyone.
Yellow is me!

Jon Mishima

What are they saying?
Why am I behind bars?
What does that say?
What are all these people doing?
Why am I here?
Where's my family?
Why am I doing someone else's work?
Should I think America did it,
Or some of her people?
Who? What? Where? Why? How?

Tracey Webb

I'm an Asian and I'm proud of it. I'm a person although some
people don't look upon me as one. They call me names and
think it's funny! Sure I get called names. Do you think I like it?
After all, how would you feel if someone called you a "Ching,
chong Chinaman" or a "Nip"? They can't even tell us apart.

They say things about our culture like, "They write so funny."
Even our language they make fun of by going, "Ching, cho chu."

I'm an Asian. I've got dignity but the only thing I don't have
is friendship.

Robert Chung

Asians are silent people
Never speaking of distress
Bearing much in their heart
The burden of the silent one.

Standing up to their rights
Trying to prove loyal by working hard.
America, a place of hopes . . .
For white people only!

Leah Appel

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Asians are people
Just like you and me.
They are a different race
That one can easily see.

But what does it matter
What race people are?
Whether they live next door to you
Or whether they live afar?

They may have different customs
Or have a different god.
They may be old fashioned
Or they might even be mod.

Whatever your customs
Whatever your ways
You are a person
To the end of your days.

Colleen White

Asians are people like anybody else.
They are human just like anybody else.
These people, this race, these people so pro
These people discriminated by the world
so loud.

Robert Ch

I am an Asian. Asians are proud people and I am proud to be Asian. Many people call me Caucasian, especially blacks. I have been called names, as many people have. Asians have been placed in concentration camps, discriminated and bombed. Yet at this moment, they are fighting and dying for their country in Viet Nam.

People who don't know the Asian history say thing like, "All Chinese are laundry men" and "All Japanese are gardeners." Of course, I know it was the only menial labor available when the immigrants first came to America.

I hate that song with, "Japanese eyes slant down and Chinese eyes slant up." Last year I was the only Asian in my class. As an insult they called people "Chinese spies." It is enough to make you sick.

But, I am proud to be Asian and I want all to know.

Naomi Nishimura

Asian-American Studies: Implications for Education

GEORGE KAGIWADA

ISAO FUJIMOTO

The initial impetus for the establishment of Asian-American studies was a result of the Third World Strike at San Francisco State College and the University of California—Berkeley in 1968. These strikes questioned the basic assumptions of the relevance of these institutions for Third World peoples, since, as with many institutional structures within American society, centers of higher education have continued to reflect perspectives that have developed historically under a system characterized by the subordination of nonwhite peoples.

Many Americans can understand this implication of the Third World Strike for blacks, Chicanos, and Native Americans, but most of them have difficulty seeing Asians as anything other than another immigrant group that has had some initial problems adapting to a new land. This perspective ignores some of the forced and inhumane conditions by which the Chinese, the first Asians to arrive in substantial numbers, were brought to the United States starting in the mid-1880's. In many cases, these conditions were little better than those faced by African slaves. This perspective also ignores the years of individual and mob violence, the physical attacks that included the mass murder of Asians and their being burned out or run out of their homes. It overlooks the discriminatory and exclusionist legislation directed against the Chinese at all levels of government. The phrase "not a Chinaman's chance" alludes to the conditions faced by these Asians during those early years. This attitude among whites culminated in the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, which restricted labor immigration and was the only federal statute ever to deny citizenship to a people because they were considered undesirable.

The passage of the Exclusion Act in no way reduced the demand for cheap labor in the West. Consequently, the next group of Asians to be enticed to come to the United States were the Japanese, along with some Koreans. The patterns of violence and exclusion legislation previously heaped on the Chinese were now directed at these new Asian arrivals. But because Japan was a rising international power at the turn of the century, the patterns of anti-Japanese governmental action took on a somewhat different character from patterns that had been employed against the Chinese. Thus, labor immigration was now curbed by a "Gentleman's Agreement" rather than by an exclusion act. But California, the recipient of the bulk of Japanese newcomers, sought other means of stemming the tide of what came to be perceived as the "Yellow Peril." California, followed by other states, passed the Alien Land Law in 1913 to deny ownership of land to "aliens ineligible for citizenship." This

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hit at the heart of the economic opportunities of many Japanese, since they had struggled as farm laborers to become tenant farmers and had just begun to accumulate enough savings from their meager earnings to start to buy small plots of land and become independent farmers.

But these actions did not satisfy the racist segments of the society; in 1924 the Immigration Act was passed by the U.S. Congress to all but seal the flow of Asians to our shores—with one major exception. That exception was able-bodied workers from the Philippines. As an outcome of the Spanish-American War, the United States had gained control over the Philippine Islands. As inhabitants of a territory of the United States, Filipinos did not come under the jurisdiction of the Immigration Act. Thus, they became the third major group of Asian people to satisfy the continuing labor needs of the West. The familiar patterns of violence and exclusion that had been heaped on other Asians were now directed at Filipinos. They were economically exploited by one segment of the society and despised and attacked by other segments. Because the government in control of the Philippines was the United States, Filipinos had no recourse to protest their treatment through any official channels.

The racist nature of white society in its treatment of Asians was most blatantly revealed by the World War II incarceration in concentration camps of over 110,000 Japanese, two-thirds of whom were American citizens by virtue of birth. The detrimental effects of that experience, both for Japanese and other Asians, are still very much apparent today in the suspicion and distrust that many Asian-Americans have for the American mainstream.

STEREOTYPES AND PREJUDICE

Many stereotypes have grown and persisted out of over a century of antago-

nism of white society toward Asians. The images of "the heathen," "the subhuman alien," "the inscrutable Oriental," "the Chink," "the Jap," "the Little Brown Brother," and "Gogo" have continued through the 1970's. Many Americans would like to dismiss these stereotypes as mere historical relics that have no influence in present-day society. But the reality is that they do continue to perpetuate racial attitudes and behaviors. As a consequence, Asian-Americans, particularly the young, have often found that they feel uncomfortable about being Asian.

Recent immigrants find that job discrimination is still blatantly practiced. American-born Asians find that even with good educational backgrounds and considerable experience they are often passed over for promotions and advancements because they are considered unsuitable for upper echelon positions. A recent study cited by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare on personnel decision-making executives in 50 top corporations in three California metropolitan areas revealed that strong racist feelings were preventing Asian-Americans from entering executive levels (Paul L. Niebanck, Deputy Assistant Secretary of Field Management, in HEW memo to all Regional Directors, 27 March 1972). Of those corporations surveyed, only 4 percent ever employed Asians at these levels; the others either would not even consider doing so or had reservations about it. Two factors appeared to underlie this exclusion of Asians: (a) the admitted prejudice of personnel officers, which in many instances was reinforced by combat experiences in wars against Asians and (b) the assumption that customers shared these prejudicial attitudes. Seventy-nine percent of the respondents had served either in the Pacific in World War II, in Korea, or in Vietnam. Thus, the international situation in Asia tends to feed the racist feelings of Americans not only toward

peoples of Asia but toward Asian-Americans as well. This is also another example of how the confusion between Asians and Asian-Americans leads to detrimental consequences for the latter.

This is why the incomes of Asian-Americans are below that expected on the basis of their educational attainment. And those without higher education have to work long hours in their laundries, restaurants, small businesses, and farm enterprises (occupational adaptation patterns that have their roots in the earlier period of antagonism) to make a go of it economically. Furthermore, the close-knit community organizations that Asian-Americans developed to "take care of their own" in response to the hostility of white society have not been effective and appear to be becoming less so, contrary to the myths that have been perpetuated by social scientists.

The problems of aged Asians, particularly with regard to health and legal rights, have not been dealt with adequately. Some Asian-American youths are beginning to question the values and way of life of middle class white America and are either becoming problems—by acting out or withdrawing—or are seeking an understanding of their cultural heritage as a possible source of a more meaningful life style. The resources of the society, however, offer little help for such positive actions, and many youths are becoming frustrated in their attempts.

The realization of these problems has given rise to stirrings among Asian-Americans who are ready to start organizing to do something about them. Some have referred to it as a "Yellow Power Movement" (much to the chagrin of Filipinos, who see themselves as brown Asians)—an attempt at motivating Asian-Americans to raise group consciousness in order to enhance their feelings of self-determination and their pride in themselves as a people and in their culture. It is a way for Asian-Americans to deal with their problems of self-identity as well as attack the continued injustices perpetuated within the society and its institutions.

ASIAN-AMERICAN STUDIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

The emergence of Asian-American studies is one facet of this movement. At the colleges and universities it also is part of an attempt at educational reform and represents a response to calls for education relevance.

Basically, Asian-American studies challenge the hierarchy of credibility associated with academic work and the nature of biases existing in knowledge, providing an alternative approach to gaining new explanations, since current ones are, to a large extent, no longer adequate in addressing the types of problems outlined above. For, despite all claims to objectivity, knowledge as well as perceptions of reality are defined by the interests of those doing the defining, and they are therefore permeated with myths that the dominant society finds it advantageous to perpetuate. Much of what is known about a social group ignores, let alone challenges, the biases of those who do the defining. Academic credentials have become symbols of power, since the views of those possessing such credentials are given high credibility while the views of those without them are given lower priority on the credibility ladder. Thus, those with academic credentials can establish their perspectives as believable, while those without them have difficulty in doing so.

Having the power to define situations and being accurate, however, do not necessarily go together. Yet the nature of power, through the ladder of credibility, determines which views become accepted, so that what we know about women has been written largely by men, the things we know about the young are the reflections of older people, what is attributed to the poor comes from the research of

those of the upper middle class. Might not those being described know more about themselves?

So it is with what we know about minorities; much of our knowledge in this area has been provided, produced, directed, edited, selected, published, and distributed by people who represent the majority or by minorities whose perspectives have been influenced by being trained in an educational system that perpetuates Anglo biases.

The concerns of women's liberation, dialogues on the generation gap by youth, poor people's welfare rights, actions and moves for solidarity by ethnic groups—all these entail generating new knowledge, knowledge that is defined by those being described. Gaining this new knowledge entails producing original materials by (a) asking ourselves questions from a different phenomenological perspective than those in power have been using and (b) focusing on the surrounding institutions and social conditions that define the realities of the minority group's experience. It also involves the formidable tasks of (a) criticizing and rewriting existing knowledge in order to undo the damage that has been done by misconceptions and (b) attempting to close all those channels that continue to spew forth what is not so. The challenge here is not merely to produce new knowledge but to combat ignorance. In the words of Mark Twain, ignorance is "not not knowing, but knowing what is not so."

Incorporating Asian-American studies into curriculums is an attempt to use the resources of colleges and universities so that they will be specifically relevant to Asian communities in the United States and Asian-Americans as a people. Much of what is currently taught in these courses still relies on some of the existing social and behavioral science works but is qualified by a critical analysis of the limitations of this knowledge. These courses provide Asian-American students with the opportunity for getting a better under-

standing of their own background. Sometimes these classes serve as counseling sessions, as classroom experiences enable many students to see for the first time how the dynamics of the social processes in the society affect them, as Asians, in a unique manner. Questions about who one is and where one comes from are at the core of discussions on identity and alienation.

As students become conscious of themselves as Asians, some see their future roles relative to Asian-American communities as teachers, counselors, social workers, community developers, and community organizers. Courses leading to the understanding of the nature of Asian-American communities and the cultural dynamics of Asian-Americans in contrast to Asians in Asia are areas that need further development in order to provide students with the necessary understanding to be effective in their future roles. Furthermore, there is considerable emphasis on students' getting practical experience in combination with their strictly academic work, so courses supporting community involvement action and service programs such as tutorials and educational and recreational programs for both the elderly and the

have been developed. More in-
academic offerings have also been
ped, stimulated by a need for more
d and rigorous analysis and deeper
criticism.

n-American studies have relevance
ly in higher education but on the
ool, elementary, and secondary
as well. The concern is with pro-
various curriculum materials and
ches in order that a fair, accurate,
dequate portrayal of the Asian's
the history and contemporary
f America becomes a part of the
m of every school. The problems
area are many; only a few will be
red here.

MERICAN STUDIES
E PUBLIC SCHOOLS

of the problems we have men-
have their roots in the public
onal system. For example, even
ry look at any public school cur-
will clearly show that Asian-
ans have not been given credit for
had an impact on the develop-
f this country. Nor does the cur-
attempt to expose the racism in
ciety that has historically op-
Asians and continues to affect
fe experiences. In school text-
vhat little space is given to Asians
ed to considering the people of
their own lands. The result is
erseas Asians and Asian-Amer-
come confused in people's minds,
an-Americans are viewed as for-
-American, and not legitimately
of the American scene. Asian-
n students therefore become un-
able about their race; this fact,
with the basic assumptions of as-
on and individual mobility that
much of what is taught in our
cause them to internalize the
nt middle class patterns of life.
part from the problems of en-
ng individual racism and having
opportunities restricted, what

goes on in the public schools has preju-
dicial implications for the group survival
of Asian-Americans. For those Asians
who live in ethnic enclaves, catastrophic
results are caused by the schools' perpet-
uation of the societal view that Asian
communities are not essential assets to
the society as a whole but are rather
residual or transitional communities for
immigrants whose offspring should even-
tually assimilate. Of course, the curio
shops and restaurants are appreciated by
some Anglos as opportunities for enjoy-
ing a little cross-cultural experience, but
little concern is given to the ethnic com-
munity's survival and its providing a po-
tentially meaningful life style for its
members. Little wonder that many
Asian-American youth find that their
communities are either degraded or ig-
nored, considered unworthy for commen-
tary in our schools or textbooks.

GUIDELINES FOR ACTION

The role of Asian-American studies rela-
tive to all levels of education seems quite
clear. We need to sensitize adminis-
trators, teachers, and counselors to the
detrimental consequences that existing
programs are having on both those Asian-
Americans who choose to assimilate and
those who prefer the pattern of pluralism.
We need to develop both the materials
and the personnel for schools of educa-
tion and school districts so that they can
provide the kind of training and develop
the kind of curriculum that will facili-
tate (a) the exposure of the continuing
trend of racism toward Asian-Americans
and (b) a change toward a more human-
istic society, in which Asian-Americans
as well as all people can survive without
compromising their integrity.

The fair and accurate portrayal of
Asians in America can be accomplished
in several ways. First, texts that do not
accurately reflect the experiences of mi-
norities can be boycotted. Pressures will
then be placed on publishers to seek
scholars who can do justice to the pres-

entation of Asian-Americans. Second, Asian-Americans should be encouraged to become consultants to textbook writers and publishers as well as to become contributing writers themselves. This will greatly aid in counterbalancing the forces of misinterpretation that are often unintentionally fostered by Anglo biases. Third, educators and counselors can make use of the many ethnic publications put out by ethnic studies departments. It has been our impression that many of these writings by students are far superior to those found in so-called scholarly journals and texts. Asian-American studies departments should maintain a strong liaison with different departments on college campuses.

Programs resulting from such activities are needed in all schools, whether the schools include Asian students or not, because the programs serve primarily to educate non-Asian students to be receptive to Asians as being different, but nevertheless legitimate, Americans. Such programs will also provide a basis for Asian students themselves to feel more positive about their heritage, their culture, and their communities. In schools with no or few Asian-Americans, material should be integrated into existing courses or units, not only in history and social studies but also in literature, music, and art. In schools with a sizable number of Asian students, particularly those of immigrant parents, there may be a need for special courses, including bilingual programs, so that students may become proficient in English while maintaining their ethnic tongue. In addition, other bicultural programs should be developed to help perpetuate Asian-American culture as part of America.

The counselor or guidance personnel worker can play a crucial role in bringing about these changes in the educational structure. Rather than attempting to help Asian-American students adjust to a white middle class life style, counselors should attempt to help each student develop in keeping with the heritage of the people with whom he wishes to identify but at the same time help the student transcend this heritage through personal growth. In order for counselors to be able to do this, counselor education programs must be radically altered. Counselor education programs must have a moral and financial commitment to attracting more Asian-American students. Special courses on minority concerns and racism should be taught by individuals thoroughly familiar with the bicultural aspects of various minorities. This is especially important for counselors who plan to work in areas where large Asian populations exist. As pointed out in Kaneshige's article in this issue, counseling is a white middle class activity that may be inappropriate for many Asians. In addition, counselors may find that some of their time can be spent more productively in their attempt to educate school administrators, teachers, and the community at large about the methods of affecting changes in the school program and community environment than in their effort to work directly with students. In short, counselors need to become agents for social change rather than attempt to adjust students to a white middle class way of life.

To bring about the kinds of changes we have been discussing, members of the Asian-American community as well as Asian-American educators must take the initiative in developing programs by using the resources of the public schools, colleges, universities, and governmental and private funding agencies. Asian-American community groups in Pasadena, San Mateo, Berkeley, Oakland, and San Francisco are examples of existing efforts in this direction. Asian-American studies at the college and university level have the responsibility of providing the kind of educational experience that will prepare citizens and community development specialists who can be efficacious in these efforts. ∎

WHAT ARE YOU?

when I was young
kids used to ask me
what are you?
I'd tell them what my mom told me
I'm an American
chin chin Chinaman
you're a Jap!
flashing hot inside
I'd go home
my mom would say
don't worry
he who walks alone
walks faster

people kept asking me
what are you?
and I would always answer
I'm an American
they'd say
no, what nationality
I'm an American!
that's where I was born
flashing hot inside

and when I'd tell them what they wanted to
    know
Japanese
. . . Oh, I've been to Japan

I'd get it over with
me they could catalogue and file me
pigeonhole me
so they'd know just how
to think of me
priding themselves
they could guess the difference
between Japanese and Chinese

they had me wishing I was
American
just like them
they had me wishing I was what I'd
been seeing in movies and on TV
on billboards and in magazines

and I tried

while they were making laws in California
    against us owning land
we were trying to be american
and laws against us intermarrying with
    white people
we were trying to be american
when they put us in concentration camps
we were trying to be american
our people volunteered to fight against
    their own country
trying to be american
when they dropped the atom bomb
    Hiroshima and Nagasaki
we were still trying

finally we made it
most of our parents
fiercely dedicated to give us
a good education
to give us everything they never had
we made it
now they use us as an example
to the blacks and browns
how we made it
how we overcame

but there was always
someone asking me
what are you?

Now I answer
I'm an Asian
and they say
why do you want to separate yourselves
now I say
I'm Japanese
and they say
don't you know this is the greatest
    country in the world
Now I say in america
I'm part of the third world people
and they say
    if you don't like it here
    why don't you go back

Joanne Miyamoto

Cultural Factors in Group Counseling and Interaction

EDWARD KANESHIGE

The University of Hawaii has a student population that is somewhat unique in American colleges and universities. When the enrollment is broken down into various ethnic categories, statistics show that the majority of students are of Asian-American background. This is not surprising, since more than half the population of Hawaii is nonwhite. However, statistics on student use of the university's counseling services, which are provided on a nonfee, voluntary basis to the entire student body, show that the proportion of nonwhite (primarily Asian-American) students who use the services is considerably less. One of the prime reasons for this lack of acceptance and use of counseling services is the inherent conflict between the values of Asian-Americans and the values that are implicit in the counseling process.

Although different orientations in counseling place emphasis on different methods and techniques that are most likely to bring about success, the various methods appear to be in general agreement about the desired outcomes. Counseling emphasizes the individual worth of each person and his growth toward greater maturity. This may pose problems for the individual's family and friends, but generally, where there is a conflict, the growth of the individual is considered to be of greatest importance. Understanding the emotional aspect of one's behavior and motivations is another characteristic of counseling. Counselees are encouraged to be expressive of their emotions rather than stifle them. Since counseling is a verbal activity, the full and open expression of feelings, problems, conflicts, etc., is a necessary condition.

The values and goals of group counseling are similar to, if not identical with, those of individual counseling. Although each client must be aware of other group members, he is basically working toward his own self-understanding, growth, and maturity. The usual expectation is that one learns more when he is focusing directly on understanding his own dynamics and behavior, but it is possible that significant learning also occurs when one is attempting to aid another individual in understanding his dynamics and behavior.

Most counselors and psychologists accept these goals rather naturally, and they are frequently unaware that the conditions and goals of group counseling run counter to some of the values of their clients. They may not have examined the possibility that some of their fundamental beliefs and premises in counseling are actually contrary to the cultural heritage of some individuals they counsel. Asian-American students encounter a number of conflicts as they participate in the group counseling process—which has been recommended to them as a way of resolving their conflicts.

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CULTURAL PATTERNS IN GROUP COUNSELING

Let us first examine some of the conditions, goals, and techniques of group counseling as they relate to the values of one Asian-American group, Japanese-Americans, and then go on to see how the differences in cultural patterns emerge in group interactions.

Will Power

One of the first conflicts that the Japanese-American student faces is his accepting the fact that he has a problem he cannot adequately overcome by himself. This is not as easy as it may seem, since his culture views personal problems and shortcomings as being due to a lack of resolve and determination by the individual. The Japanese-American client finds it difficult to admit that he has a problem when he knows he will be told that he hasn't tried hard enough. His culture believes that understanding one's motivations may be important but that the primary cause of human failure is insufficient will power.

Consequently, this client sees that taking his problems to a counselor cannot solve the conflict and that the only hope he has is to try harder. If the problem persists and continues to cause pain and unhappiness, he develops a fatalistic attitude and bears the burden in stoic fashion. It is therefore not surprising that he somatizes many emotional problems and, if he does bring them to a counseling center, it is only after considerable time and pain.

Nonconfrontation

In many group counseling formats there is only a minimum of structure and direction. The group leader may start each session off, but much of the content and focus is voluntarily initiated and pursued by individual group members. A group member is expected not only to share of himself and his personal concerns but also to become actively involved in the dynamics and problems of other members. To be involved means not only to empathize and be supportive but also to be open and to confront others who are self-deceptive or unable to accept their ability to contribute to a problem's resolution.

The Japanese group member is deterred from directly confronting other group members because he has been taught that it is impolite to put people on the spot; that it is presumptuous on his part to be assertive; and that the group leader is the most knowledgeable person and all should therefore defer to his greater wisdom and judgment. So he finds it difficult to make his share of comments and questions, even when he feels that he has a valid contribution to make.

Humility

A related factor in the degree of participation is the issue of humility. Japanese are taught to be self-effacing because their culture values humility and modesty. "Don't be a show-off or engage in any behavior that smacks of being a braggart" is a common admonition. An example of the way this value works is found in the elementary schools. The teacher asks anyone who knows the answer to a problem or question to raise his hand. She is certain that the problem is not overly difficult and that there are some children who know the answer. However, she is greeted with what appears to be complete nonresponsiveness. No hands go up. No one wants to be a show-off, even though many would enjoy praise and recognition. Similarly, in a counseling group the Japanese client struggles with his desire to volunteer comments and suggestions because of the gnawing feeling that to do so would label him a show-off.

Shame

Another prime value of the Japanese culture is to not bring shame to the family

name. The Japanese individual is encouraged to perform deeds that will bring honor to the family, but his failure to attain positive public recognition is not a major consequence. On the other hand, bringing dishonor to the family name is of such importance that family members are repeatedly admonished against performing deeds that could bring disgrace to the family. The Japanese feel that family problems and conflicts are to be resolved within the family circle and that the only image that can be publicly displayed is a socially acceptable and consistent one. Therefore, the admission and display of personal inadequacy, even in a counseling group, is a sign of familial defect, and this brings shame to the family.

Related to this is the Japanese concept that the individual is of minimal importance as compared to the importance of the family. The individual exists and is important only in relation to his group. Thus, the public exposure of family conflicts in the process of resolving individual conflicts and eventually achieving self-fulfillment is an unacceptable display of selfishness and exaggerated self-importance. Reaction and punishment generally follow swiftly.

The existence of these conflicting values for the Japanese group is not unique. Every minority ethnic group experiences value conflicts to some extent.

Additional problems are created, however, when other group members and the counselor misunderstand or misinterpret the Japanese client's seeming lack of effort to help himself. Being judged as not trying or not wanting to improve because he doesn't ask for help or can't talk about his problems compounds the problems that he has. And to cry out at this unfair judgment seems futile, since it does not alleviate the problem.

CULTURAL PATTERNS IN GROUP INTERACTION

Let us now examine the ways in which the differences in cultural values and patterns show up in interactions among group members from Japanese and Caucasian-Western backgrounds. Four values or patterns of behavior—verbal participation, emotional expression, avoidance of conflict, and acceptance of authority—have been selected to illustrate these differences.

Verbal Participation

Verbal participation is the extent to which an individual verbally participates in the group. Although there are individual differences among members of the same nationality group, anyone who has lived in Hawaii for any length of time would generally agree that Caucasians talk more than Japanese do. It is for this reason that, in the schools, Japa-

nese students are urged, challenged, and encouraged to participate more in classroom discussions, while their Caucasian classmates are gently restrained and encouraged to let their relatively nonverbal fellow students say more.

Let us examine how the verbal participation pattern operates in a group situation. In a group composed of teachers working on improving their self-understanding and their interrelationships, the following exchange took place between a highly verbal Caucasian teacher and a Japanese teacher:

Caucasian Teacher: I don't feel that it's really fair for you local [Japanese] teachers to remain silent and force us [Caucasian teachers] to carry the ball in our discussion with the principal. I feel that it's important that someone speak up for us teachers; but since no one will, I feel that I have to take the responsibility, even though I would prefer not to.

Japanese Teacher: Gee, that's really interesting. What I was thinking while you were talking was that I hoped you would realize that you were talking too much and that you were monopolizing the time. I didn't want to say so, because I felt that it would be impolite for me to do so. Also, I kinda felt that you had a need to talk and be recognized by the group, so I felt that we should be tolerant and understanding of you. Actually, I felt that we were the ones who were behaving responsibly by not speaking out and complaining about your excessive verbalization.

In pursuing this exchange, it became clear that there was a wide difference in opinion as to what talking and silence meant and whether one behavior was more desirable than the other. The Caucasian position seemed to be that (a) a responsible person talks so that something can be accomplished; (b) silence does not accomplish anything; (c) a person who is quiet is either not very bright or does not have any ideas. On the other hand, the Japanese position appeared to be that (a) it is better to be quiet than to ramble on and say nothing or say something that is not well thought out; (b) the talkative person doesn't think very much because he is too busy talking; (c) the talkative person is essentially an attention seeking, narcissistic individual. The Japanese cultural pattern is to be quiet and listen to others who have more wisdom than you do; the Caucasian tradition is to exercise your initiative and responsibility by talking. If you are uncertain about whether or not to say something, the Japanese view is to remain silent; the Caucasian view is to say it anyway.

Emotional Expression

Emotional expression is defined here as the extent to which an individual reveals his inner feelings to others. It is closely related to, but not the same as, verbal participation.

In most situations the Japanese person tends to remain nonexpressive. He has been raised since childhood not to show his emotions. Thus, although he may be moved by what is occurring in the group, he is almost instinctively restrained from revealing his concern, and his facial expression remains passive. The Caucasian, whose upbringing has nurtured emotional expression, interprets this behavior as demonstrating a lack of feeling about what is transpiring. One Caucasian characterized this behavior as a sign of noncaring, and it brought forth this exclamation from him: "Doesn't this have any effect on you? Don't you care at all?" An individual who is unaffected by another person's suffering and pain is considered almost nonhuman and frequently becomes the focus of anger.

Thus the Caucasian view seems to be that (a) emotional expression is good; (b) the individual who is emotionally expressive is mature and accepting of himself. The Japanese view appears to be that (a) emotional expression is a sign of immaturity; (b) one should strive for adult behavior, and emotional restraint is one example of this.

Avoidance of Conflict

The Japanese culture values the individual who subordinates himself. The

individual who sacrifices himself to avoid conflict even when his position may be justified is frequently looked upon with commendation. The individual who insists on his way, even when justified, is often looked upon with disapproval and is frequently condemned. In a verbal dispute, then, the Japanese individual tends to disengage himself from the argument, even when he is convinced that his position has more validity than that of the other person.

Acceptance of Authority

Japanese children are taught very early in life that they are the least worthy and the least knowledgeable and that to be presumptuous is a cardinal sin. They are taught to speak only when absolutely certain, and even then only with extreme modesty. In groups, this type of upbringing is evidenced in the extent to which the Japanese individual wants the goals of the group sessions to be clearly described and specified and his subsequent willingness to stay with the original goals. When it appears that the group is deviating from the original goal, the Japanese individual attempts to get the group back to its original goal. The Caucasian individual sees this conforming behavior as unnecessary and even undesirable and would prefer that the group have the freedom to move in more creative ways. The Japanese person sees this kind of free-flowing behavior as another mark of immaturity and a lack of personal discipline. Imposing rules and regulations is therefore seen as a deprivation of freedom from one viewpoint and as a stimulator of freedom from the other.

THE COUNSELOR'S ROLE

An individual's cultural heritage influences his attitudes and behavior in his daily life. It also influences his acceptance of counseling as a desirable method of increasing his self-understanding and self-worth. Even when he accepts the goals and methods of counseling, however, he may find that his personal values and beliefs are in conflict with them. It is important that counselors understand and recognize the existence of these potential conflicts and that they *do not judge the Asian-American client from the Western-white value orientation*. To do so would hinder or stop the progress of counseling and possibly create even more conflicts for some individuals.

In group counseling, the counselor can work toward (a) helping the Asian-American client overcome the cultural restrictions that hamper his emotional growth and (b) helping other group members grow in their understanding and acceptance of minority group members. The group counselor can do this in a number of ways.

1. He can encourage the Asian-American client to be a more verbal participant by providing a group climate that is supportive and nonthreatening.

2. He can demonstrate that he understands the uniqueness of the Asian-American by verbalizing some of the cultural value differences and by sensitively recognizing the internal struggle that the Asian-American faces in expressing himself.

3. He can aid the verbally "nonexpressive" and "nonaggressive" Asian-American client who is struggling to express his feelings by minimizing interruptions by other group members. When two group members try to speak at the same time, he can tactfully restrain the more talkative one and encourage the one who has more difficulty in expressing himself.

4. He can reassure the Asian-American client and all group members of the confidentiality in the counseling process.

5. He can try to improve the accuracy of the interpretations made by group members by pointing out and clarifying what is happening, as in the following example:

Client #1 (Caucasian): I don't see it the same way that you do. I think you're wrong. [He proceeds to describe his views.]

Client #2 (Japanese): [no response]

Counselor (to Client #2): Do you feel that your understanding of the situation was wrong and that Client #1's interpretation was right?

Client #2: No. I still feel I was right, and I think that Client #1's explanation doesn't make sense at all.

Counselor: How come you didn't say that?

Client #2: I didn't want to hurt his feelings, and besides, it isn't worth the hassle.

Counselor: It's important that you do express your feelings both for yourself, so you can be understood, and for the others, so that their perceptions can be more accurate.

6. He can challenge aggressive assertions and critical statements made to Asian-American clients by their Caucasian counterparts where he feels that the assertions are only partially accurate. Where he might ordinarily wait for the attacked person to defend himself, the counselor may have to recognize that the "passive" Asian-American client may not defend himself because of his cultural inhibitions. The counselor's actively stepping in and commenting on the statements and behaviors would be important in improving the understanding of what is happening.

7. He must recognize that he is being a model for all group members, but especially so for Asian-Americans, who value authority. His tone of voice and manner of interaction with each group member are unconsciously and sometimes consciously noted and may do much to encourage or stifle verbal expressiveness.

8. He can help the group process by alerting group members to listen more carefully and to consider the observed behavior from the standpoint of the person being observed rather than that of the observer. "What does it mean to you?" and "What do you think it means to Client X?" are questions that might stimulate group members to think beyond the usual interpretations.

9. He can help the Asian-American client recognize that he is not necessarily denying his cultural identity if he does not always act consistently with his values. The client can be helped to recognize that he can rationally choose to change his pattern of behavior because the new behavior is more in keeping with the kind of person he wants to be and not necessarily because it is merely conforming to society's codes. For example, he may decide to change his behavior when he understands that his quiet, unassuming, nonassertive behavior is being read by non-Asians as inarticulate, conforming, and obsequious.

In summary, the group counselor can help the Asian-American client to be more expressive in communicating his feelings and thoughts to the group without negating his cultural values. The counselor can work with other group members in creating an atmosphere that increases the possibility that each individual will be accepted regardless of his background and values. Counseling can be more than therapeutic; it can also be rewardingly educational. ∎

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Culture Shock—
West, East, and West Again

MAXIMO JOSE CALLAO

It was only a few months ago that a long-time friend of my parents' visited with them. As often happens, they reminisced about the times that brought them to this country as adventurous, speculative immigrants. While they were showing their friend around the town, my parents, evidently quite proud of the fact that their son is an assistant professor in the local college, suggested that I show their friend the college campus and my own office. As we viewed the campus and my office, my parents' friend exclaimed, "Isn't it amazing that within one generation's time we [Filipino-Americans] have been able to progress from busboys for the Men of Annapolis, tomato pickers, and elevator boys, to positions such as college professor?" He seemed fascinated by the sociological ascension afforded to a segment of Asian-Americans.

I've spent much time thinking about his comment. The changes he saw seemed quite drastic in light of the culture he and my parents encountered as immigrants. But what about the drastic effects I've felt as a result of my culture and subcultures?

There have been many times when I've felt like an immigrant in the land of my birth. I wasn't born in the Philippines. I was born and raised here; that should make me an American. But I'm not white (though my birth certificate states that I am), nor am I black, nor am I Chicano, nor am I Indian (or is Native American the more accepted term now?). Only recently have I become aware of the fact that Asian-Americans have been

able to voice some of their concerns about living in a culture full of conflicting, discriminating stimuli. This new-found voice could be a result of Asian-Americans' riding on the coattails of other ethnic groups that have developed political power or their just getting fed up with the common misconception that they are being treated more like whites than are other ethnic groups. I'm more inclined to believe the latter speculation. It seems ironic that as I write about myself and Asian-Americans I'm using a term many other writers have used to classify Asian-Americans: "other ethnic groups."

I'd like to look at myself quite subjectively—not as a typical Asian-American, but as one Asian-American, specifically a Filipino-American, and look at the effect the American host society has had on me through several developmental stages of my life.

CHILDHOOD AND EDUCATION

I was raised in a Filipino subculture in a small community in California. My father was a Presbyterian minister in charge of a small Filipino congregation consisting of immigrants who were quite influential in the Filipino community. Many complex dialects were used as means of communication within the community. Having to learn to speak

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and comprehend a language that was not my parents' native language was probably my first awareness of my own special subculture (my primary family). Social interaction seemed to reinforce and reward my use of English. I was always fascinated with my parents' mixture of English and their own dialect, Iloko. Secretly, I've always felt that my parents would have been much happier if during childhood I had learned, like a good Filipino child, to speak their dialect rather than just comprehend it. Practicality, however, seemed to necessitate the use of English. (This is probably a nice way of saying that I feel I was shamed into speaking standard English.)

I was never fully aware of being different from the other children in my classrooms in elementary school. My speech patterns were the same, and I wore sneakers just like any other kid. I was aware, however, that some of my teachers were pleased with my fairly docile, non-irritating, cooperative nature; they often said things like, "Your kind are so different from the troublemaking Negro and Mexican children." What surprised me was my growing intolerance for the speech patterns of Filipinos—any Filipinos, including my parents. I thought myself very clever to be able to mimic the way some of my parents' friends spoke. In some way I must have been manifesting a helpless embarrassment about my own racial background. I can recall an incident in which two older white boys cornered me on a tennis court and started mimicking an atonal dialect that they must have thought was some kind of Chinese dialect. "Well, Chink, did you understand that?" I don't think I mimicked any Filipino speech patterns after that.

In high school I became more aware of some of my cultural limitations. Quickly I found out that there were some girls I could be friends with but couldn't date. There were many little subtleties that left me bewildered. There were times I was so self-conscious that I felt I had the plague or something worse. More and more I was aware of my own physical image as it appeared in a mirror reflection—black hair, dark skin, and almond-shaped eyes. I wished so much that I could have sounded out some of these feelings with someone at school. I thought my parents wouldn't understand because they weren't me. They weren't going to my school. And for some reason it was embarrassing and difficult even to think about discussing this concern with my parents. Unfortunately, the counselors at our school weren't really counselors; they were academic advisors. I always wondered why they weren't called academic advisors in the first place.

At one time I found myself wishing that I were white. Out of the millions of people in this country, I had to be born brown. I actually hated myself and my race. It would have been so much easier to be white. (As I write this article, I'm a bit reluctant to let my parents read it for fear that they might not fully understand or might be hurt by what I've said.)

I never could fully assert myself in elementary through high school. It took every ounce of courage for me to raise my hand to ask a question or even request permission to go to the toilet. (Can you imagine holding on until the recess bell rang—especially when you had to go real bad?) I cannot recall a single teacher who took me aside and encouraged more verbal interaction from me. Many of my white classmates were often encouraged to be more verbal and aggressive. I guess Asian-Americans were supposed to be quiet, stoic, and inscrutable.

My vocational choice after high school seemed to be a logical and appropriate extension of my personality. I was going to become a chemical engineer. I wouldn't have to talk or communicate with test tubes. But after a couple of years I got tired of relating to formulas and test tubes. What I wanted—or

needed—was interaction with people. I guess this was my rationale for switching to psychology and sociology. What a trip! Now my studies centered around interactions that were people oriented. I was starved for it.

Some stereotypes can send you on an ego trip. In undergraduate school it was not uncommon for someone who was not even well acquainted with me to ask if he could borrow my notes for class. (Of course, Orientals always do well academically and therefore take good notes.) I always felt sorry for anyone who borrowed my disorganized notes, which consisted mainly of doodles and other manifestations of my daydreaming, but I always lent them out. Very rarely would someone ask to borrow my notes for the second time, no matter how desperate he was. After breaking up with the girl I was going steady with in my senior year (she was blonde and had green eyes—Asian girls didn't seem to appeal to me, even though white friends encouraged me to seek this type of relationship—"It's better for you"), I decided to seek counseling from the college counseling center because I couldn't study or keep my mind on anything but my own depression. I wasn't sure if I could be helped, but I promised myself that my parents weren't going to know that I was seeking this kind of help. I don't think they were that excited about my going with a white girl in the first place.

For some reason my counseling sessions didn't get into discussions about any kind of cultural conflict, possibly because I appeared to be appropriately assimilated and acculturated into the host culture. I can't help but feel that the counselor who was working with me inadvertently bypassed some blatant cultural concerns. ("This counselee's problems aren't like those of a black or a Mexican. Other than his skin color, he doesn't seem much different from most of us. He talks white; maybe he thinks white too.")

REVERSE CULTURE SHOCK

After undergraduate school I was accepted into a training program for Peace Corps Volunteers going to the Philippines. No one, including myself, seemed to realize that I was soon to face a special type of cultural shock that only a Filipino-American could experience. While in the States, I wasn't quite sure how I thought. I was inclined to believe that I thought like a Filipino. My first few months in the Philippines were close to being a nightmare. For the first time I became painfully aware that many of my thoughts and actions were white, or at least representative of the dominant culture in the States. Out of necessity, I quickly learned many new ways to react.

When I returned from the Philippines I experienced a kind of "reverse culture shock." In many ways I had learned to adjust to and assimilate into the Philippine culture. I now spoke the Iloko dialect fluently and had even incorporated into my behavior several nonverbal means of communication indigenous to Filipino culture. Before going to the Philippines, I guess I was ashamed of my racial background. When I returned, I seemed to swing over to the opposite end of the continuum—everything and anything Filipino was beautiful, and anything representative of the dominant white culture was second best. I guess it was a type of cultural one-upmanship.

Things have leveled off quite a bit by now. Graduate school and some significant individuals I should have met when I was a child have interceded to minimize my one-upmanship games and help me be more comfortable with myself and those around me. Now I work as a counseling psychologist in a college setting. So far I haven't had much opportunity to work with a variety of ethnic groups. I really like what I'm doing, and I do think I'm effective, but some situations make it difficult for me.

"I have nothing against Filipinos, but

could you give me an appointment with another counselor?"

"Your eyes are shaped differently, therefore your culture must be different."

"I don't know whether you're a Christian or not, but I have this problem. . . ."

"But where are you from originally?" (Sometimes I feel Outer Mongolia would be the appropriate response.)

"We'd love to have you over for dinner. Please wear your native garb." (How can I tell them that my native garb is Levi's and smelly sweatshirts?)

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

Culture shock is not a sociological phenomenon limited to the "fresh-off-the-boat" immigrant. It is a very real experience that can and often does entrap many Asian-Americans in the web of marginality. The question "Who am I?" is especially difficult for the assimilated and acculturated Asian-American who may not be sure to what culture or subculture he belongs. Quite often, counselors who are oriented toward the dominant culture and its concerns are themselves culturally disadvantaged. Culture shock can and does occur to counselors who are unaware of important subcultural concerns. In many cases too much time is spent on the study of the latest techniques and research methods while one of the most essential ingredients of the counseling process— people and their life styles—is forgotten.

The Asian-American experience is a unique one. It is the counselor's responsibility to be aware of the fact that Asian-Americans are not "just like blacks, Chicanos, or other ethnic groups." Just as each counselee is an individual with his own characteristics, so it is with each different ethnic group. For example, cultural marginality is probably more pronounced among Asian-Americans than any other major ethnic group.

Stereotyping Asian-Americans has done enough damage. A counselor must honestly assess the extent to which stereo-

typing is affecting his relationship with his counselee. It is not only a counselee's behavior and attitude that must change for needed growth but also that of the counselor. He must become involved.

The concept of shame plays an important role within all the subgroupings of Asian-Americans. Shame is often the major motivating force that prompts Asian-Americans to do or not do something. An Asian-American client may perceive counseling itself as a shameful process. The counselor's responsibility in such a situation is to confront and encounter the effects of shame rather than neglect and dismiss them.

In summation, a counseling relationship involving an Asian-American client may be highly deceptive, because very real cultural conflicts are often camouflaged. Many counselors inadvertently do not attend to important concerns because the apparent acculturation of the counselee makes it appear that any kind of cultural conflict either has already been resolved or never existed. In reality, acculturation may be an indication of a lifelong struggle of wanting to belong.

EPILOGUE

Recently my wife and I have been blessed with our first child, a beautiful baby son. His name is Aaron. We feel that a Hebrew name is appropriate for a child with a Filipino-American father and a Japanese-American mother. His eyes are almond-shaped, and his skin will soon take on a pigmentation that will make him physically different from most of his future playmates. Hmmmm . . . I think I'd like him to be the first American (not Asian-American) to win an Olympic saber fencing medal. More than that whimsical fantasy, I wish him a life free from the subtle cultural perplexities that have often confused and frustrated his mother and father. And I wish him significant others who will freely allow him to be . . . to become . . . and to belong. ∎

Paraprofessionals in Counseling Centers

ROGER STEENLAND

Professional interest in the role of para-professionals is high, but there is a lack of information concerning what para-professionals are actually doing in counseling center programs.

Crane and Anderson (1971) polled counseling center directors regarding their attitudes concerning the use of para-professionals in the college counseling center. They also attempted to identify those activities in a counseling center that directors felt could be performed by paraprofessionals under the supervision of a professionally trained counselor. Crane and Anderson defined a parapro-fessional as having completed at least a minimal preparatory training period (from 6 to 8 weeks) and as having adequate supervision combined with further inservice training.

Activities that were likely to receive the directors' strong approval were: (a) tutoring disadvantaged students, (b) being a "big brother" to the disadvantaged, (c) doing freshman orientation counseling, (d) functioning as a research assistant, (e) counseling students with study problems, (f) administering the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, (g) working on an emergency telephone service, and (h) counseling students with adjustment-to-college difficulties.

Activities that were likely to receive the directors' strong disapproval were: (a) counseling students with sexual difficulties, (b) counseling students with marriage problems, (c) counseling students with symptoms of pathology, and (d) administering and interpreting the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale or the Rorschach Diagnostic Test.

THE TASK FORCE STUDY

One obvious question is: Who are the people functioning as paraprofessionals in counseling center programs and what are they actually doing? In order to obtain answers to this question, the Task Force on Paraprofessionals in the Counseling Center (1971), an interest group that met at the 1971 Annual Conference of University and College Counseling Center Directors, polled approximately 135 directors of counseling centers regarding the possible use of paraprofes-sionals, the types of persons employed as paraprofessionals, and the types of services they performed, as well as their training, supervision, and possible payment. Almost all the counseling centers included in this study were located at public and private four-year colleges and universities. Sixty-three directors responded and provided information concerning their use of paraprofessionals. Sixty percent of these 63 centers reported that they were using undergraduates as paraprofessionals.

Of particular interest are the services performed by undergraduates working as paraprofessionals. Table 1 (p. 418) shows the services they perform, ranked in order of frequency. It is apparent that counseling centers are using undergraduate paraprofessionals in generally the

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Services Offered
by Undergraduate Paraprofessionals

Paraprofessional Service	Number of Centers
1. Crisis center or "hot line" telephone service	11
2. Study skills help	8
3. Drop-in center and peer counseling	7
4. General advising and information services	4
5. Clerical work on research	3
6. Companion or befriending programs	2
7. Leading or co-leading groups	2
8. Sex and birth control counseling and information	2
9. Relaxation training and desensitization	1
10. Co-leading communication skills workshops	1
11. Support service for campus minorities	1
12. Occupational information assistant	1

same roles as Crane's and Anderson's data suggested the directors would approve.

The question of payment of the paraprofessional is frequently raised. The data obtained in this survey indicates that slightly fewer than half of the undergraduate paraprofessionals are paid in some form. Half of those who are paid are paid through work study funds. Three of the centers reported awarding academic credit in lieu of payment.

It is noteworthy that most of the paraprofessionals apparently are sufficiently motivated so as to offer their services for no remuneration either in terms of money or academic credit. These programs apparently have an intrinsic appeal to a significant segment of students.

IMPLICATIONS

What implications does this report have for counseling? It may suggest that reasonably healthy students may be the most effective agents for the delivery of certain student services. It may also suggest that those responsible for developing counseling programs need to take a very close look at the paraprofessional movement. The appropriate use of undergraduate paraprofessionals may make it possible to provide a range of counseling services in spite of budgetary cutbacks. Of equal importance is the potential for one ordinary person to encounter another person and for them both to gain something from it. ■

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Toward Counseling Competence: The Stanford Program

C. G. HENDRICKS

JEFFREY G. FERGUSON

CARL E. THORESEN

Let's take a look at a journal entry written by Sue, a trainee in the counselor education program at Stanford.

. . . so after spending Sunday reading, I got up early Monday and went to the workshop on decision making. Then I worked at my field placement all afternoon and got home just in time to have a quick snack before going to the meeting of the drug information team. I've never been so busy in my life. Sometimes I wonder if I couldn't learn to be a counselor by just taking courses?

Good question, Sue. We've asked that question at Stanford, and we think we've come up with some effective alternatives to the traditional structure of counselor education programs. In this article we

will briefly review the basic features of the Stanford program and describe the experiences that are currently being used to train counselors at Stanford. We will also discuss some of the problems we have encountered, some of the positive aspects, and the future of the program. Although attention has recently been paid to the basic design of the program (Horan 1972; Krumboltz, Thoresen & Zifferblatt 1971; Thoresen 1972), we would like to respond to the interest in the program's "nuts and bolts" that has been expressed by counselor educators and prospective students.

SOME BASIC FEATURES

Competence-Based Approach

Sue progresses toward her master's degree by demonstrating competence in several prescribed areas. To earn her degree she must show that she has attained the specific performance levels in the skills required by the program. For example, Sue's practicum requirement is that she complete at least three successful cases; success is determined by her accomplishment of the steps illustrated in Figure 1 (p. 420).

In learning the skills specified by the program Sue will not spend much time in traditional classroom courses. She will have few typical exams, and she will not receive traditional grades. Instead, at the end of each quarter she will receive a + (passing) or an N (continuing) for a given area, depending on how long she takes to demonstrate her competence.

Behavioral Approach

The behavioral approach to counseling evaluates counselor effectiveness in terms of specific changes in client behavior. The goals of counseling must be clearly stated objectives, mutually agreed on by client and counselor (Krumboltz & Thoresen 1969). Further, counseling is seen as the experimental study of the individual case. That is, each person is unique

in his particular situation, and the counselor's task is to use a method of helping that is tailored to the individual client (Thoresen & Hosford in press). From the very beginning data is gathered on relevant changes in client behavior. When the specified goals of counseling are reached, Sue will have evidence in the form of measured changes in client behavior to demonstrate her counseling skills. As a behavioral counselor, Sue learns to produce what may be termed "accountable" results.

If counseling competence is judged in terms of client change, it follows that a counselor education program should produce measurable effects on trainee behavior. Therefore, to the extent that the program produces counselors capable of eliciting desired results with clients, the program becomes accountable.

Explicit objectives and mechanisms for information flow and feedback are characteristics of systems theory that have relevance for counselor education (Thoresen 1969). At present no one knows the *best* way of helping clients, but by teaching Sue to let her behavior be guided by the responses of her client, and by judging Sue's competence in terms of changes in client behavior, important information is communicated throughout the system. If a certain intervention produces no effect, Sue devises another way of approaching the problem. Similarly, the behavior of Stanford's counselor educators are shaped by the responses of the trainees. If Sue and other students have difficulty with a certain area of competence, another mode of instruction is

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tried. The program is therefore in a constant state of evolution as data is gathered on the effectiveness of its training procedures.

Applied Behavioral Scientist Model
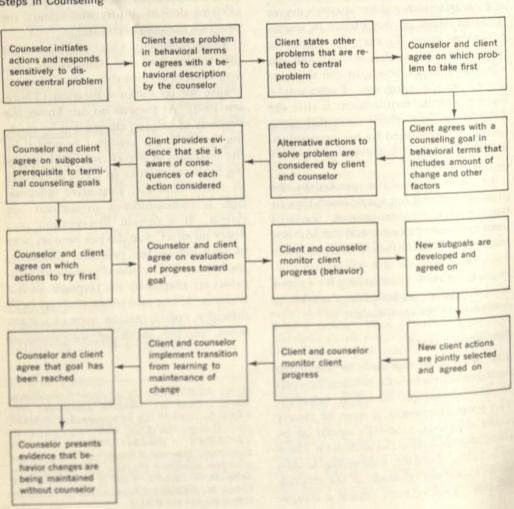
Although counseling has been referred to as a "God-like" endeavor, requiring people "sensitive to truth, to beauty, to the vast order of nature [Wrenn 1966]," we prefer the model of the counselor as a normal human being, energetic and skillful, who works as an applied behavioral scientist. Since a competence-based program assumes that counseling skills can be learned, conspicuously absent from the Stanford program is the attitude that counseling is a mystical enterprise practiced by saintly persons whose warmth and understanding are exceeded only by their charisma. (However, as soon as we define the components of charisma and find that charisma helps clients change, we may include it in our training system!)

PROGRAM COMPONENTS

Trainees must demonstrate competence in eight components of the system: (a) general counseling and behavioral change methodology, (b) practicum, (c) foundations, (d) group counseling, (e) decision making, (f) research, (g) preventive sys-

FIGURE 1

Steps in Counseling

tems, and (h) dealing with minority clients.

General Counseling and Behavioral Change Methodology. When the fall quarter begins, Sue participates in an intensive two-week workshop designed to provide her with some of the essential tools of counseling. She sharpens her skills in listening and interviewing, problem identification, goal definition, and the design of intervention strategies. She is introduced to some basic change techniques, such as contingency contracting and the establishing of behavioral objectives with clients—a very difficult task! The accent is on the practical. As well as learning about the effects of different types of reinforcement, Sue also learns, for example, ways of training teachers and parents to use social reinforcement with children.

Practicum. Practicum experience is a major part of the Stanford program. In addition to working at her field placement site, where she will spend from 8 to 20 hours a week, Sue's practicum will include seeing clients at the Stanford Institute for Behavioral Counseling, an on-campus counseling center operated by the counselor education program. Although many students prefer to take their practicums in public elementary and secondary schools, others choose to work in junior colleges, mental health clinics, correctional institutions, or mental hospitals.

A team approach is used in practicum work. The teams are organized around five problem areas: (a) child, family, and school problems, (b) interpersonal and social skills problems, (c) sex, avoidance, and addiction problems, (d) decision making and academic problems, and (e) problems of minority clients.

Sue has her choice of teams, which consist of a faculty member, two doctoral students (who act as case supervisors), and from four to six MA students. Sue meets with her team and consults with her supervisor at least once a week. These meetings, which give her the opportunity

to discuss her cases and get feedback on her performance, are regarded by the trainees as the most significant learning experiences in the program.

The practicum teams are also used as teaching units. All team members function as teacher-learners investigating their problem area and designing learning experiences that teach the other trainees about it. For example, one team may present a four-hour workshop to teach the other students the rudiments of systematic desensitization, a technique to help persons with fears and anxieties.

Foundations. A counselor should have a broad knowledge of the field and a familiarity with contemporary problems in the social environment. To help Sue attain such competence, teaching teams of MA students are formed to study various theories of counseling as well as social problems and issues such as drugs, sexual behavior, educational alternatives (e.g., open schools), sex roles, minority problems, and countercultures. Instead of writing a paper on Gestalt therapy or taking a multiple choice test, Sue is required to discuss the Gestalt therapy or the multiple choice test approach. Why? Because in reality Sue may be asked to talk about various approaches with parents, colleagues, or students. Seldom will she be asked to write a term paper!

Group Counseling. A workshop is held at the beginning of the winter quarter to introduce Sue to the basic skills involved in group counseling. The workshop is designed to teach several areas of competence: (a) presenting basic features of group counseling to prospective group members; (b) conducting pregroup interviews with prospective group members; (c) establishing behavioral objectives; (d) using group techniques (e.g., roleplaying and modeling); and (e) devising evaluation procedures to measure the attainment of objectives. Sue demonstrates her group counseling competence by forming a group and presenting evidence that she has engaged successfully

in all the above activities. Of the two groups Sue will lead during the year, one of them will be of an ethnic background different from her own.

Decision Making. Helping clients learn decision making skills is an important competence for a counselor to attain, since the decision making process can be used in all areas of a client's life. The media for teaching decision making skills are workshops and course experiences. The terminal behavior expected of Sue is her demonstrating that she can help a real or simulated client reach a decision by an appropriate process (Krumboltz & Baker 1971).

Research. It is important for the counselor, as an applied behavioral scientist, to be familiar with research methodology, not only for the purpose of making experimental investigations of her own but also for sharpening her critical examinations of work reported in the literature. There is usually a substantial amount of counseling research in progress at Stanford. Sue may be asked to take part in and become familiar with the design and operation of a research project. To increase her research skills, a minicourse is offered that analyzes studies in the literature and introduces skills in research and evaluation.

Sue's competence in research is judged by the quality of a project she selects and completes. One example of a typical research project is an empirical case study (N—1 experiment) in which Sue gathers data on the effects of her interventions with a client and then writes a report presenting the data and her interpretation of it.

Preventive Systems. One of the most useful roles of a counselor is that of a problem preventer. Counselors deal with many difficulties that arise from ineffective grading, testing, and disciplinary programs, all of which are systems that present exciting challenges to the prevention oriented counselor.

Along with developing a flow chart

model of an existing system, Sue will be expected to design a system that meets a need within the counselor's field of responsibility. For example, Sue might assess the guidance needs of the 10th graders at her field placement site and discover an interest in early career planning. Using this information, Sue could then establish behavioral objectives for a program, select intervention procedures, and evaluate the program by comparing the performance outcomes with the objectives.

Dealing with Minority Clients. Sue learns about how to help minority group clients so she can respond to their needs. One of Sue's successful cases and one of her counseling groups must be of a different racial background from her own. She also engages in workshops and other planned activities designed to equip her with skills that will be useful in working in minority communities.

SOME PROBLEMS

Information Flow. The Stanford program, like any complex human endeavor, has problems both large and small. To begin with, there is a continuing need to improve the flow of information throughout the system. There is often insufficient or delayed communication between faculty and students. Although faculty and students alike are aware of this problem, delayed communication is likely to continue, since three faculty members must serve the needs of from 12 to 15 doctoral students as well as 25 MA students. One solution would be to increase faculty; another would be to examine how faculty time is used. A third would be to create more self-directed learning experiences.

Another area in which information flow must be improved is between on-campus and off-campus training experiences. Deficient communication has resulted in instances of trainees' being exploited in their field placement sites by being assigned tasks outside the counselor's area of responsibility. Sometimes

the trainee is used as a dumping ground for "hopeless" cases.

Mode of Instruction. The search continues for the best combination of training experiences. If weaknesses are found in teaching techniques, they are modified in favor of something new. Two examples of such weaknesses were spotted during the 1971–72 program: interview skills and behavioral analysis. The trainees felt that they were not getting sufficient training in techniques for responding to clients in individual and group interviews. The need for more training in behavioral analysis was evidenced when trainees repeatedly tried to bite off more than they could chew. Too often the trainees would take on amorphous problems (whether in individual cases, groups, or systems) without first breaking the problem down into smaller, more manageable parts. The data has moved the program to expand training experiences in both of these areas.

Planning. A commitment to change helps keep the program responsive to student input and to discovering and implementing new training procedures. However, frequent changes make planning difficult and result in some problems for the trainees. For instance, in 1971–72 the training experiences were unevenly distributed over the academic year. A light autumn workload, followed by increasingly busy second and third quarters, created a snowball effect that caused consternation among some of the trainees. In 1972–73 more work will be planned for the first quarter.

SOME POSITIVE THINGS

Individual Differences. The program takes into account the fact that students enter with unequal levels of competence. Since there is no time pressure to finish competencies, Sue may attain competence in, for example, group counseling in one month, whereas it may take one of her friends six months. This assessment of entry level skills through the evaluation of performance outcomes serves to reward Sue for her achievements and in no way penalizes other trainees, although it does result in differential time rates for completion of competencies.

Cooperative Spirit. Punishment is generally a relatively ineffective procedure. In the Stanford training program there are no grades and no penalty for failure to attain a competence; Sue just tries and tries again. The training system is "fail safe"; some students simply take longer to succeed than others. This eliminates cutthroat competition and instills a very positive spirit of cooperation among the trainees.

Learner-Teacher Model. We are pleased with the results of our first attempts at using a team approach, and we have received a bonus. By participating as an active learner, responsible for teaching others the skills and information she has learned, Sue benefits from learning by doing. Not only have the teams been able to do an effective job of teaching the necessary material, but the act of working together and teaching each other has again enhanced the cooperative atmosphere that students and faculty have found very positive.

THE FUTURE

A larger question remains to be answered: How well does a competence-based program equip its graduates to deal with problems in the field? The data will be gathered as our trainees move into the field and provide feedback on the training experiences that were most (and least) valuable in helping them deal with the realities of their jobs. Just as counselor behavior must be shaped by data from clients, a competence-based program must be shaped by the data its graduates feed back into the system.

This idea has wide implications for training programs in general. For example, it may make sense to defer final certi-

fication of a trainee until she has demonstrated competence on the job for a certain length of time, perhaps two years. One implication of this involves the transferring of power from training institutions to field settings. We predict some resistance to this idea by training programs. However, the merits of such a certification system should be considered as more training programs begin to adopt a competence-based approach. Deferring certification is a position highly consistent with a competence-based approach.

The spirit of the Stanford program is to judge our trainees' competence in terms of change in the behavior of their clients; it follows that our competence as counselor educators must be judged in terms of changes in trainee behavior. It is a demanding approach that sometimes alarms us by its implications. Occasionally we yearn for the yesteryear of the lecture course with its multiple choice final exam. But we do feel that a competence-based program, altered by data from trainee performance and focused on demonstrating that counselors do help clients change, is a highly responsible training system. ∎

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Etcetera

Daniel Sinick

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Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

Opening Opportunities for Disadvantaged Learners edited by A. Harry Passow. Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1234 Amsterdam Ave., New York 10027. 1972. 370 pp. $9.50 hardbound, $5.95 paperback.

An Annual Work Conference on Urban Education has been held at Teachers College every summer since 1962. Three previous volumes included the presentations made at the first six conferences. Eighteen papers given at the last two conferences are here presented, together with a selected bibliography. Though "disadvantaged" by that questionable term in its title, the book displays a showcase of experts like Passow himself, Basil Bernstein, and Grant Venn; Edmund Gordon covers guidance and Winthrop Adkins "structured counseling." Larry Cuban, in "The Death of Intellect; or How to Change Teachers into Cretins without Really Trying," challenges clichés of terminology and also of theory and practice. He cites the teacher who spoke of the "culturally depraved." This conference compendium contains exciting writing.

Blacks in Communications: Journalism, Public Relations, and Advertising by M. L. Stein. Julian Messner, 1 West 39th St., New York 10018. 1972. 191 pp. $4.95.

Occupational information for particular segments of the population is on the upswing. Nonprofit publishers, including numerous government agencies, are presumably desirous of meeting minority group needs. Private publishers have the added incentive of a growing market for occupational materials

geared toward groups. This book, by an experienced journalist, professor of journalism, and author of other books on journalism, devotes most of its space to accounts of successful blacks in this field and two related ones. Historical background is sketched, as is current concern over such issues as objectivity in reporting, some blacks favoring "advocacy journalism." Stein's stance is well balanced.

Man as the Measure: The Crossroads edited by Daniel Adelson. Behavioral Publications, Inc., 2852 Broadway, New York 10025. 1972. 146 pp. $7.95 hardbound, $3.95 paperback.

The first in a series sponsored by the Division of Community Psychology, American Psychological Association, this volume seeks to contrast social and clinical psychology with community psychology, which "sees man as the measure of social subsystems. The traditional view of helping man fit into fairly static social systems is replaced by one which calls for reconstruction of such systems to meet the need of man in general and deviants in particular." After two opening articles presenting implications of cultural pluralism for community psychology and a model for action research, the other eight articles—multiply mixing metaphors—"focus on Berkeley [and] represent crosscurrents in psychology . . ." at the crossroads. That jest aside, the articles deal clearly and cogently with desegregation and other areas of community change.

Developmental Counseling by H. D. Richardson. College of Education, Arizona State University, Tempe 85281. 1972. 46 pp. $2.50.

Number 45 in a series of *Educational Services Bulletins,* this "personal asseveration" is in part a perseveration or at least explication of Donald Blocher's seminal book with the same title. Richardson enriches the relevance

of developmental counseling concepts by relating them to education in general, teaching, counseling objectives, counselor role, and counselor preparation. These five chapters are accompanied by carefully constructed charts detailing the "guidance of learning" and a model Master of Counseling degree.

Counseling and Psychotherapy: Training and Supervision edited by Donald E. Hendrickson and Frank H. Krause. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1300 Alum Creek Dr., Columbus, Ohio 43216. 1972. 364 pp. $7.50.

The epigraph of this book of readings quotes Comenius: "Let the main object of this, our didactic, be as follows: to seek and to find a method of instruction, by which teachers may teach less, but learners may learn more." Some assemblers of others' writings have apparently found a method of publication, by which editors may do less, but readers must do more. These editors provide a one-page preface and five introductions of about one page apiece; there are no supplementary readings and there is not even an index. The five sections cover counseling versus psychotherapy (only two articles), "Training and Teaching the Therapeutic Process," the process of supervision, the role of groups in supervision and training, and use of audiovisual techniques.

Studies in Dyadic Communication edited by Aron Wolfe Siegman and Benjamin Pope. Pergamon Press, Inc., Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York 10523. 1972. 336 pp. $13.50.

Readers intensely interested in the interview may find these proceedings of a 1968 conference on interview research sufficiently communicative despite the technical trappings. Verbal and nonverbal components of communication are discussed, such variables being considered as ambiguity, anxiety, auditory feedback (one paper is on "People talking when they can't hear their voices"), body movement, cognitive confusion, pauses, productivity, and speech rate. The editors contribute an introduction as well as 2 of the 12 papers.

Educators Guide to Free Films edited by Mary Foley Horkheimer and John C. Diffor. Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin 53956. 1972. 800 pp. $11.75.

Though far from free itself, this mammoth volume can have much value, despite its lack of film evaluation. Its merely descriptive blurbs mix the bad with the good, the flim with the flam. Yet it provides pertinent information about 4,779 films, arranged by curricular areas listed in the table of contents and also accessible through title, subject, and source indexes.

Private Independent Schools. Bunting & Lyon, Inc., 238 North Main St., Wallingford, Connecticut 06492. 1972. 664 pp. $20.00.

This is the 25th edition of *The Bunting and Lyon Blue Book,* which provides information about 1,000 American private schools, 350 having paid for lengthy descriptions and the others given brief listings (short shrift?). Schools offering summer programs are separately listed, as are associations related to independent schools. The major arrangement is by states; an alphabetical index includes all the schools. A big book, with slick paper and suitable photographs.

Assessment of Individual Mental Ability by George P. Robb, L. C. Bernardoni, and Ray W. Johnson. Intext Educational Publishers, Scranton, Pennsylvania 18515. 1972. 354 pp. $8.00.

Dedicated "to the parents of three testy professors," this book is even more than it professes to be. While most of its 13 chapters deal with individual tests of intelligence, it has chapters on group tests, basic statistics, and research—"to emphasize the necessity for reading research reports critically." It treats such important issues as invasion of privacy, heredity-environment (the hyphen not meaning "minus"), and fairness to minorities. It gives more attention than many texts to racial and cultural differences and to testing handicapped persons. It devotes two chapters to test interpretation (normative and clinical) and one to the psychological report. This text is assessed as passing the test.

Book Reviews

Influencing Human Interaction by Norman Kagan. East Lansing, Michigan: Instruction Media Center, Michigan State University, 1972. Manual $10.00, film program $225.00, videotape program $1,825.00. (Units may be purchased separately. Preview materials available from author.)

"Experience is the best teacher" is a cliché that survives because it holds some truth. Experiential approaches in education are usually rated enjoyable and effective by teachers and students. Norman Kagan has developed an excellent experiential program for developing effective communication and interviewing skills among counselors, psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers. The program can also provide some mental health training for other professional and parapro-fessional groups: teachers, administrators, physicians, nurses, clergymen, etc.

Kagan spent eight years of extensive work and research developing this program. He says his training program is as effective, and in some cases more effective, than traditional training programs, but he does not provide the supporting data in this volume. In any case, this basic experiential approach deserves close examination, if only because of the personal involvement it demands of trainees.

The program consists of six basic units that involve trainees through reading, discussion, practice, films, and videotaping. In Unit I trainees learn basic response modes for communication in the interview. Unit II helps trainees identify emotional situations

that are threatening for them and learn to handle their anxieties. Trainees are introduced to Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR) in Unit III. IPR is a process in which a counselor observes a client reviewing an interview videotape with a person trained in recall technique—the inquirer. The client's minute-by-minute stimulated recall enables trainees to understand themselves better, recognize their impact on others, and realize others' impact on them. In Unit IV trainees learn the inquirer role in IPR, for work with fellow trainees and for continued self-analysis. In Unit V trainees learn more about clients' lives and communication by applying the IPR inquirer skills with each other's clients. In Unit VI trainees focus on using the here-and-now experiences of the interview to understand clients and help clients understand themselves.

Although the program uses specific films, videotapes, and procedures, it allows for a great deal of flexibility for incorporating the biases, emphases, and idiosyncrasies of any instructor. Kagan's program will be helpful in the graduate level training of mental health professionals, especially counselors. It should also prove valuable for inservice train-

ing programs with any personnel who must use good human interaction as a major portion of their work.

The major drawback of the program is the cost of the program itself and the necessary audiovisual equipment. While most counselor education programs already have such equipment, the cost may be prohibitive in small school systems or inservice training programs with limited resources.

Huxley once wrote, "Experience is not what happens to you; it is what you do with what happens to you." The *Influencing Human Interaction* program incorporates Huxley's axiom by providing trainees with both the experiences and help in using the richness of those experiences to become more effective communicators and interviewers and thereby more effective persons.—*James L. Lee, University of Wisconsin, Madison.*

Successful Programs and Practices for Counseling the College-Bound Student by A. Martin Bloom. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969. 317 pp. $9.95.

Despite three years between its copyright date and its receipt by this reviewer, this book needs review for what it isn't as well as for what it is. It isn't counseling. More properly it should be called *Methods and Materials for Use with the College-Bound.* This is most apparent in part 2, in which 10 group guidance programs are presented. Even the counselor highly experienced in helping with college selection may find some new ideas in this part.

The other three parts are essentially composed of how-to chapters. Logically, part 1 is on basic tools and background. Of significance to more than college admissions is the chapter on building effective school records, in which the topic is treated more thoroughly than in most current introductory texts. Bloom also deals with another neglected area, the "nuts-and-bolts" matter of the Carnegie unit versus flexible scheduling and the relative credit value assigned to different subjects.

In the third part—"The Counselor: Getting Assistance from Admissions Directors . . ."—Bloom may be a little too "nuts-and-bolts." To cite an extreme example, it seems reasonable to question whether a counselor needs a sample letter to a superintendent requesting funds and travel authorization for visiting colleges.

Air Force service: a vocational asset

DANIEL C. PERKINS, JR.

PAUL D. KNOKE

Dan Perkins is *Chief of Educational Affairs for the USAF Air Training Command, and was formerly an Associate Professor and Deputy Head of the Department of Life Sciences, United States Air Force Academy.* **Paul Knoke** *is a liaison officer for Educational Affairs and a former Academy Associate Professor of English.*

As APGA members well know, young people without college prospects often look at the service as a last resort. Understandably they are impatient to get out into the world on their own. They are even more afraid that military duty will drastically retard their chances of competitive success in the civilian job market. With the draft ending, four years in the Air Force may look particularly unappealing.

But that fear is misconceived. Far from a waste of time, Air Force service can be an advantage to the youngster seeking civilian employment. **Over 80% of Air Force jobs have civilian application,** a compatibility which we reinforce from pre-enlistment to post-separation. Under the guaranteed job program, a potential enlistee can specify an available job from a list of 132 possibilities; if he doesn't get it, he can leave the service. For a veteran there is the GI Bill, which helps him complete up to 36 months of college education at a current monthly rate of $220, more with dependents.

In the meantime the Air Force sends the recruit to a good technical training school. It encourages him to further pursue his professional and educational training by funding as much as 75% of the tuition for off-duty courses, and by completely subsidizing more than 200 correspondence courses offered through the U. S. Armed Forces Institute. **But most unique of all is the new Community College of the Air Force.** This agency is now proceeding toward full civilian accreditation of its seven technical schools. It will provide each airman with a transcript of his education/training, particularly meaningful when he leaves the service. And it will award him a Career Education Certificate in one of 76 majors upon completion of a minimum of 64 semester hours of Air Force and college instruction.

That leaves pay. Single airmen annually earn $4900 plus $1,000 or free housing, after two years and three promotions. If married, they earn $6400. Add to this a paid 30-day vacation, free medical and dental care, travel opportunity, and shopping/insurance/recreation savings. **Department of Labor figures show that on the average the airman nets over $40 a month more than his civilian counterpart.**

We think the Air Force is a vocational asset worth many young peoples' consideration. **This office plans to exhibit at your forthcoming national and regional conventions. Please stop by. Or write us at Hq ATC/RSAE, Randolph Air Force Base, Texas 78148.**

The last part, "Upgrading the Counseling Program," is *really* misnamed, since it has nothing to do with counseling, treating as it does audiovisual aids, student visits to colleges, and the establishment of standards for future success.

Two criticisms, or at least expressions of personal bias, can be mentioned. One gets the impression that the student is something to be placed (or not placed) into college as the counselor decides. Related to this, but much more substantive, is the total omission of the concept of vocational development. A much stronger book would have resulted had the topic been considered from the perspective of choice and admission to college as an appropriate developmental step for some high school students.

Despite this, and recognizing that some updating is necessary, the book can be recommended for (a) the professional library of all counseling departments, (b) counselors transferring into senior high schools from other institutions, and (c) counselors who feel themselves to have inadequate background in the specialized area to which the book is addressed.—*Robert E. Wurtz, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.*

Family Therapy: A Triadic-Based Approach by Gerald H. Zuk. New York: Behavioral Publications, Inc., 1971. 239 pp. $12.95.

Family therapy is defined as the exploration and attempt to shift the balance of relationships among family members so that new and less pathogenic forms of relating become possible. Zuk, a knowledgeable and experienced clinician, writes about the "go-between process" (the name he gives to the method of triadic-based family therapy), which is essentially a "bargaining transaction" of three or more persons focusing on here-and-now interactions.

A major value of this book is its unique presentation of a new and increasingly popular approach to family therapy. The text offers a brief review of the literature, a succinct description of the go-between process, and transcriptions of several interviews.

The book has a number of drawbacks, however, especially for the guidance counselor. First, it is not a primer for the beginning family practitioner; two-thirds of the chapters have appeared previously as journal articles. Second, the descriptive language is often ob-

Recommended Reading For Counselors

EDUCATIONAL THERAPY MATERIALS FROM THE ASHLOCK LEARNING CENTER by Patrick Ashlock, *The Ashlock Learning Center, Chicago,* and Sister Marie Grant, *Co-Administrator of the Dominican Education Service, River Forest, Illinois. Foreword by* Beth Stephens. '72, 440 pp. (5 3/4 x 8 3/4), 5 il., 4 tables, With accompanying, extensive test-related teaching materials. Book price: $15.75; Kit price: $125.00; Both $135.00

PRESCRIPTIONS FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING AND ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS by Ralph F. Blanco. *Temple Univ., Philadelphia.* '72, 320 pp., $9.25

CONTEMPORARY FIELD WORK PRACTICES IN REHABILITATION by John G. Cull *and* Craig R. Colvin, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville* '72, 344 pp., 2 il., $16.75

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION: Profession and Process *edited by* John G. Cull *and* Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond. (25 Contributors)* '72, 576 pp., 2 il., 1 table, $18.50

CRISIS CENTER/HOTLINE: A Guidebook to Beginning and Operating *edited by* Ursula Delworth, Edward H. Rudow *and* Janet Taub, *all of Colorado State Univ., Fort Collins. Foreword by* Weston Morrill. *(12 Contributors)* '72, 160 pp., 10 tables, $9.75

THEORIES AND METHODS OF GROUP COUNSELING IN THE SCHOOLS (2nd Ptg.) *edited by* George M. Gazda. *(8 Contributors)* '72, 240 pp., $7.50

SOCIAL AND REHABILITATION SERVICES FOR THE BLIND by Richard E. Hardy *and* John G. Cull. *(22 Contributors)* '72, 420 pp., $15.75

MICROCOUNSELING: Innovations in Interviewing Training (2nd Ptg.) by Allen E. Ivey, *Univ. of Massachusetts, Amherst. Contribution by* John R. Moreland. *Foreword by* Robert R. Carkhuff. *Introduction by* Dwight W. Allen. '72, 228 pp., 1 il., 1 table, $9.75

COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY AND GUIDANCE: An Overview in Outline by Jerome A. Kroth, *Ball State Univ., Muncie, Indiana.* '72, about 200 pp., 1 table

WHY PEOPLE KILL THEMSELVES: A Summary of Research Findings on Suicidal Behavior by David Lester, *Stockton State College, Pomona, New Jersey.* '72, 368 pp., $14.75

PREVENTING MISBEHAVIOR IN CHILDREN by Dewey J. Moore, *Indiana State Univ., Terre Haute.* '72, 184 pp., 1 table, $9.50 cloth, $4.50 paper

TECHNIQUES FOR BEHAVIOR CHANGE: Applications of Adlerian Theory (2nd Ptg.) *compiled and edited by* Arthur G. Nikelly, *Univ. of Illinois Health Center, Urbana. Foreword by* Alexandra Adler. *Epilogue by* Rudolf Dreikurs. *(28 Contributors)* '72, 244 pp., $10.50

COUNSELING PARENTS OF THE EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILD *compiled and edited by* Robert L. Noland, *Univ. of Dayton, Ohio. (45 Contributors)* '72, 452 pp., 7 il., $11.50

PERSPECTIVE AND CHALLENGE IN COLLEGE PERSONNEL WORK by James F. Penney, *Boston Univ.* '72, 108 pp., $6.50

COUNSELOR EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION: Readings in Theory, Practice, and Research *compiled and edited by* Milton Seligman *and* Norman F. Baldwin, *both of Univ. of Pittsburgh. (60 Contributors)* '72, 436 pp., 5 il., 34 tables, $14.75

scure; without a substantial background in the theory and practice of family therapy, much of the richness of the material is lost. Third, the book is primarily written for community mental health workers rather than professionals in educational settings.

Is the book worth reading? Family treatment and education is growing in acceptance as a valued method of reaching families and influencing communities. Will counselor educators encourage the study of the family? Will pupil personnel workers obtain sanction from school administrators to move beyond the confines of educational objectives into broader problems of family life? Will guidance counselors take the risks and put forth the effort to implement new and challenging approaches to working with families? —*S. Richard Sauber, Harvard University Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts.*

Perspective and Challenge in College Personnel Work by James F. Penney. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1972. 93 pp. $6.50.

This book is a well-written critique of college personnel work as a profession. It is also a current examination of the major issues confronting the student personnel worker.

In part 1 of the book, the author documents his thesis that college personnel work has failed to gain the status of a profession because of (a) conflicting loyalties within the field and (b) an inability on the part of personnel workers to understand campus power politics. The first problem stems from the conflict between the goals of professional training, which emphasizes counseling, and the goals of the institution, which assigns administrative and management functions to personnel workers. The second problem is due to the fact that personnel workers have never perceived the universities as political institutions and thus have not effectively used the power structure to translate their views of student needs into realistic programs.

Part 2 of the book suggests some new directions the field must take to become a vital force on campuses. Penney sees that when the philosophical basis for college personnel work changes from an essentialistic to an existentialistic approach, three new roles will emerge: an educational consultant, a glorified counselor, and a campus ombudsman.

The author indicates a preference for the emergence of the ombudsman role and in the closing section of the book outlines a proposal for implementation of this role.

It is the final section of the book that needs clarification. The reader is left with the impression that Penney has merely proposed another specialty area in a field already criticized for its diversity and lack of unified purpose.

I highly recommend the book as a supplemental text for a course in college student personnel work, and it should be of particular interest to counselor educators.—*Marlin Schmidt Jeffers, University of Iowa, Iowa City.*

Organization and Administration of Guidance Services by T. Antoinette Ryan and Franklin R. Zeran. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1972. 470 pp. $4.95 paperback.

Although this book has *Organization and Administration* in its title as a key phrase, only four of its chapters are fundamentally concerned with those areas. The remaining eight cover material typically (and appropriately) found in many introductory guidance texts.

The claims for a bold new approach do not seem borne out by a careful examination of these eight chapters. Some interesting samples of practice are sprinkled through several of these chapters and could be useful to the beginner, but they are not new in the creative sense; they are simply current.

The authors make a serious effort to discuss the meaning of management and its component parts. They provide a good, brief explanation of the mechanics of management, with emphasis on Simon's concept of the manager as a decision maker. This approach is sound but does not go far enough. They seem completely unconcerned with the issue of human relations and how they affect the decision making process.

The authors elsewhere speak of waves of fashion, noting how each in its time was regarded as a panacea. They seem to have fallen into the same trap, as evidenced by their fervent advocacy of a systems approach and its treatment of accountability. There is a good discussion of the systems approach in this chapter, particularly as it relates to the mechanics of systems analysis and synthesis, but charts of process will not bring about the

millenium any more than will charts of organization. What kind of thinking goes into establishing objectives and defining the types of data wanted? What kinds of human relations will exist to facilitate the flow of communication and its acceptance? It seems that, to the authors, accountability means efficiency. It all smacks of industry and business, which are not necessarily good models for education. What we need to be concerned with in guidance for accountability is effectiveness. We are not interested in putting out products that show the greatest profits and that have the least quality in them that we can get away with.

The book could be useful for the beginning counselor or administrator; illustrations of various practices drawn from around the country are provided. The sophisticated administrator who has come to recognize the subtleties and complexities of organization and administration, especially in the field of human relations, will find little in this volume with which he is unfamiliar and the absence of much with which he is.—*Edward Landy, Assumption College, Worcester, Massachusetts.*

The People Dynamic: Changing Self and Society through Growth Groups by H. J. Clinebell, Jr. New York: Harper & Row, 1972. 176 pp. $4.95.

This book, by a professor of pastoral counseling, was written for participants in growth groups and for professionals (clergymen, teachers, youth workers, and school counselors). Separate chapters reflect this appeal to those professionals as they deal with the problems of marriage, women's and men's liberation groups, youth, children and families, schools, churches, agencies, and the training of change agents to humanize society.

In general, Clinebell shows a good understanding of group process, leadership skills, and tools and techniques for appropriate facilitation. I question a couple of areas of emphasis, though. For example, he says that the key to any group's ability to release the people dynamic is the nature and quality of the group's leadership. Increasingly, research is pointing up the equal importance of the group composition. And the author stresses homogeneous groups, only casually recogniz-

ing some of the deficiencies of this type of grouping.

The author is almost too enthusiastic in his manner of suggesting the recruitment of growth groups. For example, he states, "If you're on an agency staff, you doubtless know at least a half dozen prospective clients—e.g., recent graduates of therapy—who would profit from a continued growth-support group."

One significant area in the text that is not fully developed is the theoretical rationale for describing behavioral change. Another deficient area is the author's citation of research to support claims made of the value of growth groups. Most of the citations are of the testimonial variety.

This is a useful book, however, for several reasons. The author presents a very strong case for the necessity of beginning the change process with manageable, small groups such as can be composed in schools, churches, synagogues, and families. He also provides many useful techniques or tools for increasing the communication and interaction among the members of a variety of groups. He recognizes the importance of the developmental life stages of growth and the tasks or coping behaviors necessary for each stage, and he outlines the types of growth groups for each of eight life stages. He also cites the limitations of leaderless groups and "game playing" or "emotional trips" of some so-called growth oriented groups, and he recognizes the role of lay professionals as group leaders or co-leaders. He notes too some reasonable awareness exercises for use in small groups, recognizing the need to use them only as parts of the ongoing group experience—not as gimmicks or "turn ons."

Finally, Clinebell's writing style is direct, interesting, and nontechnical.—*George M. Gazda, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia.*

Clinical Assessment in Counseling and Psychotherapy edited by Robert Henley Woody and Jane Divita Woody. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1972. 370 pp. $13.95.

Robert and Jane Woody and six colleagues have collaborated to produce *Clinical Assessment in Counseling and Psychotherapy*. The book handles four aspects of measurement: theoretical considerations, assessment methods, assessment settings, and training.

Scarcely a page of Frederick Thorne's chapter, "Clinical Judgment," goes by without a plea to give up theories and study practitioners. "Discover who the master clinicians are and then . . . discover why they perform more validly." The assumption is that those who are consistently accurate and therapeutic did not get that way by chance or inimitable personality. Eclecticism to Thorne is not just a slogan for the jack-of-all-trades-master-of-none practitioner; it is a demand for updated knowledge of what works for oneself and others.

Robert Geertsma's "Observational Methods" deals with the sticky problem of getting a counselor to agree with others, or even himself. Reviewing tapes with colleagues should continue after the last practicum class.
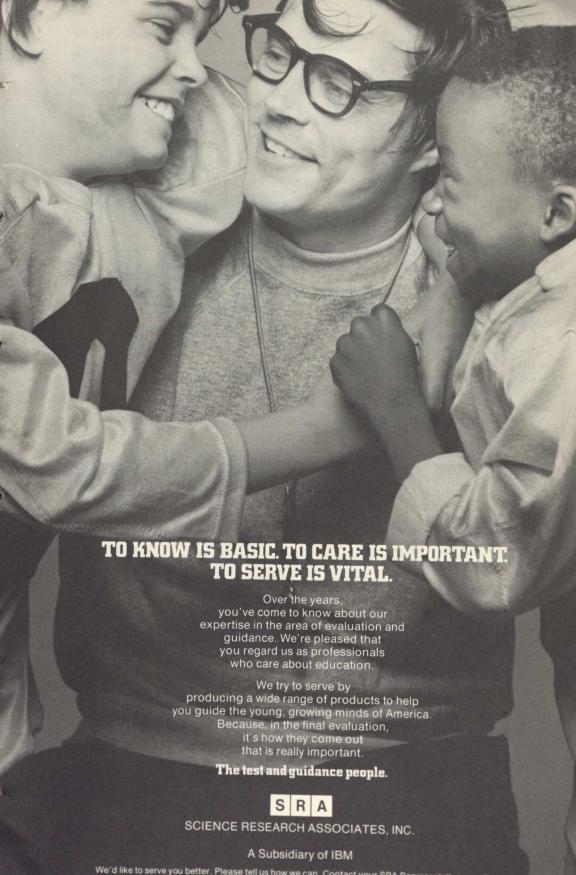
"Diagnostic Interviewing," by John Houck and James Hansen, is aimed at the student and beginning counselor. A superb summary of four methods of psychotherapy and diagnosis—those of Sullivan, Rogers, Wolpe, and Miller and Dollard—is followed by a detailed, practical, how-to-interview guide. The details run from a discussion of office furniture and greetings to what to do about silence.

Milton Shore's "Psychological Testing" is also aimed at the student. Shore lists seven reasons for the decline in diagnostic testing and suggests a remedy: Test for mental orthopedics rather than for selection.

The late John Hadley's "Clinical Assessment in Mental Health Facilities" examines various new programs, especially the use of paraprofessionals. He hopes for a continued shift toward a health model and diagnostic techniques for groups and communities.

The senior editor, Robert Woody, contributes three chapters, in which he provides a theoretical introduction for the book; examines the settings, personnel, and personality measures used in schools; and presents solicited opinions on clinical training from 13 professionals.

Although all the contributors are basically in agreement, the book reads more like a collection of chapters than a text. The style of writing varies from clear how-to-do-it to technical review of research. Half the book is aimed at the student and practitioner, the other half at the counselor educator.—*Norman Fredman, Queens College of CUNY, Flushing, New York.*

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Youth: Search for Meaning by Edward A. Dreyfus. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972. 159 pp. $2.95.

I found this book to be an intensely personal expression of the author. It is not a simple review of the literature with "filler" between the cited studies. Rather it is deeply personal and affective instead of professorial and coldly objective. I found this delightful.

The author sees the youth culture as experimental rather than revolutionary. It is not so much that youth finds the traditional values and life styles of their elders to be completely false or immoral but more that youth finds these values irrelevant. And not so much that youth is fighting a set of false doctrines but more that they wish to try more alternatives for themselves.

There are 11 chapters in the book, 10 of which can stand relatively alone; the last is an epilogue and represents a summary of the other chapters. In the early chapters the author takes a look at four types of students and their attempts to find meaning in the world: the hippie, or dropout; the "renaissance man" student; the career oriented student; and the radical student. The author sees the counselor's function as that of assisting students to face the "absurd." He describes an existential approach to counseling; he sees the value of counseling technique as growing out of philosophy and theory. One chapter deals with youth and intimacy and makes an attempt to define intimacy and grapple with the relationship between intimacy and meaning.

The middle chapters are devoted to the major institutions of our society: marriage, religion, education, and the economy. While it is possible to find more complete examinations of these issues in other books concerned specifically with each one, the treatment given here attempts to relate each institution to the concepts of meaning and intimacy. The final chapters deal with the counseling relationship, career development, and the special problems of counseling black youth.

I feel that this book may be used profitably as a supplementary text for a basic course in counseling; it also has a contribution to make to the practicing counselor and to parents who are trying to understand their children.

In summary, this book is essentially the result of a man's thinking about his experiences as a youth and with youth. He is not afraid to take a stand and offer his well-

reasoned opinions. While it is timely and realistic, the book is also optimistic and creates in the reader a sense of the human strength and growth potential in youth.— *W. J. Dipboye, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.*

Goals and Behavior in Psychotherapy and Counseling edited by Jack T. Huber and Howard L. Millman. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972. 375 pp. $5.95 paperback.

This is a book of original readings designed by the editors to focus on *issues* of treatment. They state that the book's goals are to "aid students in developing a theory of their own" and to "help students focus on what is actually done in treatment." Major readings are presented in the areas of the psychiatric interview, psychoanalysis, individual psychology, orgone therapy, Gestalt therapy, client-centered therapy, counseling, social work treatment, direct psychoanalytic psychiatry, rational-emotive psychotherapy, existential therapy, logotherapy, morita therapy, reality therapy, personal constructs therapy, and behavior modification.

Each of the 16 major treatment presentations is preceded by a short statement of focus and followed by an extensive list of questions. These questions are considered as a combination student guide and instructor's manual. It is a thoughtfully put together book with some interesting, to-the-point selections.

I used to believe that good supervision was done via the Socratic method; rather than making my own values and behaviors clear, I would lead the student, through questioning, to his own wisdom. While this method seemed laudable, it proved unfair to the trainee and frustrating to us both. I felt the same kind of frustration in reading the questions following each presentation in this book, and certainly in reading the epilogue. Students have enough questions of their own, and the specific questions coming from a specific student are more meaningful, valid, and important for him and his formulations than is a set of presented questions. The supervisor, via book or personal supervision, might best operate from a position that states as clearly as possible what it is he believes, what it is he does, and the results of what he does.

So while the selections can help in focusing on what is done in counseling, if Huber and Millman revise the book, I would like to see them drop the questions and draw from their own background of hard, practical experience to state clearly what they believe, how they function, and the results they get. —*Dorothy Loeffler, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

The Counseling Process by Daniel J. Delaney and Sheldon Eisenberg. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1972. 206 pp. $3.95 paperback.

This book, a clearly written presentation of what the counselor does or should do, would be excellent to use in a beginning course for counselors. It gives an overview of the different stages of the counseling process and of the techniques available for the resolution of client problems.

The logic of the counseling process is apparent as the authors discuss the initial interview, the counseling relationship, goal identification and the determination of counseling strategies, termination, and follow-up. One of the interesting aspects considered re-

garding the initial session is the influence of client expectations.

I feel that the section on counseling strategies will be of particular value to students who want to know what the counselor does when faced with a particular client problem. Recognizing that there is no one method that will help all clients, the authors show how a counselor must learn to use various techniques, depending on the client's specific problem. The value of their presentation is increased by a demonstration of counselor techniques discussed; the topic of desensitization seems well handled.

At times the book seems almost too lean, leaving a feeling that counseling is a very easy procedure. But if the student follows some of the authors' wide range of suggestions for further reading on each topic, he will come away with an appreciation of the complexities of counseling.

In summary, it is a good book, well written, interesting, and one that should be particularly helpful to anyone who wants to know what a counselor does and how he does it.— *Wayne Anderson, University of Missouri, Columbia.*

Career Education: Perspective and Promise edited by Keith Goldhammer and Robert E. Taylor. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972. 296 pp. $5.95 paperback.

School-based models of career education, covering kindergarten through the 12th grade, are the focus of this book of readings, which include contributions, most of them not previously published, by S. P. Marland, Jr., Dale Parnell, Edwin L. Herr, and others. Many definitions of career education are offered, but Gordon Swanson wisely treats it as an emerging concept, tracing its start as an international movement to Sweden. He notes that while some regard career education as the outgrowth of vocational education, others see it as stemming from our advanced knowledge of how learning and career development occur.

Career education integrates a guidance approach to career development with the entire school curriculum instead of confining guidance to occasional career days or counseling sessions. Students are exposed to career clusters and part-time jobs, through which they may increase their self-awareness and knowledge of career options. At best, career education can make education more relevant to students; at worst, it may dilute academic education.

Several contributors mention that job placement will become an important school function. But little attention is given to building job-finding techniques into the curriculum. Too many students leave school not knowing how and where to apply for jobs and being unaware of free sources of counseling and placement such as those provided by state employment offices.

Feminists are concerned about what career education offers, knowing that girls studying vocational education are concentrated in such traditional women's fields as home economics and office practices. Unfortunately, the authors show a sex-stereotyped approach. In presenting case studies, for example, the sex of the students described can easily be inferred from the kinds of career explorations that are recommended.

The book provides useful program planning ideas for school administrators and guidance personnel charged with implementing career education. Others just acquainting themselves with the concept are better off reading the proceedings of career education conferences of the Educational Testing Service.—*Lorraine D. Eyde, U.S. Civil Service Commission.*

The Colleges and the Courts: The Developing Law of the Student and the College by M. M. Chambers. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1972. 316 pp. $8.75.

Chambers has authored a concise text that should prove an excellent source for all college student personnel workers and administrators. Particular items of interest for the practitioner should be the chapter on confidentiality of student records and the chapter discussing the various facets of college dormitory living. Other possible topics of interest (depending on counselor involvement) are the laws covering (a) student organizations, (b) campus disruptions, (c) freedom of speech and assembly, and (d) selective service. For counselors who work closely with those who are concerned with the enforcement of campus regulations, this book should be indispensable.

This work is the seventh in the series of

volumes on *The Colleges and the Courts*, and the author has done his homework. The book includes nearly 300 federal and state court decisions, most of them since 1965, on this one segment of college law.

Readers can easily locate specific topics in the nicely detailed contents of the 21 group-ings dealing with student tuition and fees, academic regulations, and the many features of student affairs, which include such items as freedom of the student press, the "speaker ban" furor, specificity of campus regulations, and due process in disciplinary proceedings.

I particularly liked the author's interpreta-tion of the various cases and the meaning of the court decisions for the future. Chambers is always careful to distinguish between crim-inal and college law and between the impli-cations for public and private institutions.

The book contains an excellent bibliogra-phy, consisting mainly of very recent pam-phlets and articles, and a ready reference to all the court cases mentioned in the text. I feel, however, that footnotes explaining some of the legal terminology (*pendente lite*, a *per curiam* announcement, a *de nuovo* hear-ing, etc.) would have helped immensely

For those counselors interested in the law, here is an economical, first-class summary.—*Arthur J. Bangs, La Salle College, Philadel-phia, Pennsylvania.*

Group Leadership: A Manual for Group Coun-seling Leaders by Marlyn M. Bates and Clar-ence D. Johnson. Denver, Colorado: Love Publishing Co., 1972. 263 pp. $6.50 paper-back.

The authors state that their main purpose is to present to the professional group leader the tools "which will enable him to activate group process in a way which insures that members have growth-producing experience." In the opinion of this reviewer, they have fallen considerably short of that goal.

A well-written first chapter defines the authors' brand of group counseling as the "extensional group." Such a group is rooted in the theory and philosophy of existential-ism. The extensional group is designed on a health model as opposed to a remediation model. Thus, the authors are in effect de-scribing a growth group rather than a group usually associated with the term *counseling.*

Operationally, the authors define the ex-tensional group as a mixture of process and technique drawn from encounter, growth, human potential, and sensory awareness groups as well as from Gestalt therapy. Chapters on verbal and nonverbal methods to facilitate group interaction are packed with techniques. The techniques, however, are so briefly described as to be of little practical value to the counselor. Further-more, only passing comment is made regard-ing which techniques are best suited to which goals with what clients under what group conditions. Moreover, many techniques gen-erate content and process outside the bounds defined as appropriate in an extensional group.

The chapter on measuring group members' progress is helpful but again is scant. Only normative assessment tools are reviewed. This seems peculiar in light of the fact that the extensional group is committed to self-actualization. I would have expected to see a discussion of unobtrusive measures and ways to measure idiosyncratic member goals.

In the last two chapters, on the misuse of groups and groupsmanship, the authors, with tongue in cheek, address themselves to ethical issues in conducting groups.

In conclusion, although the authors intro-duce important considerations in conducting an "extensional group," the book is not com-prehensive enough to qualify as a useful handbook.—*J. Laurence Passmore, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

Youth: Critical Issues by Marvin Powell. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972. 105 pp. $2.50.

The issues Powell examines in this book in-clude: future vocational choice, future in college, emotional security, interpersonal re-lations, social conscience, drug use, and sex-ual problems. He includes the entire age range from 13 to 22, so this is really a book about adolescents and youth.

If the reader can get past the first chapter, which is an uneasy and traditional introduc-tion to adolescence and youth, he will find himself involved in a critical discussion of the irrelevancy of today's education. For Powell, relevance is always in terms of future career. Unfortunately, the focus here, as in so much writing, is on the problems of col-lege preparation and college attendance. The 50 to 70 percent of youth who terminate their education during high school are over-

looked, as are their problems of unemployment, unwed parenthood, welfare, and alienation.

Throughout the book the counselor is given suggestions for helping youth to cope with the issues presented. To perform all of these services would require the type of counselor Wrenn had in mind a decade ago when he recommended a minimum preparation of two years. And Wrenn didn't expect his counselors to provide sex education, abortion counseling, draft counseling, or counseling about drug abuse. Powell asks for all of these and more.

The strength of the presentation of curricular problems, college planning, and Powell's sympathetic treatment of the many youth movements tends to be overbalanced by the brevity of the discussion of many issues, the too-frequent insertion of his own values and beliefs, and the lack of indepth analyses of some of today's most pressing problems. I found myself searching for some application of the insights of Erikson, Maslow, or Kohlberg to the understanding of the critical issues of youth. Instead I was reminded of a Sears-Roebuck catalog that carried, instead of merchandise, a listing of the diversions awaiting the adolescent in America on the road to adulthood.

For the great majority of counselors who are in touch with young people this book says little that is new. It might be useful reading for those parents and teachers who stoutly defend their bastions on the far side of the generation gap.—*James S. Weeks, University of Detroit, Detroit, Michigan.*

Reaching Out: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization by David W. Johnson. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972. 269 pp. $8.95 hardbound, $4.95 paperback.

David Johnson has put together a dandy book. It was first developed as a training manual for interpersonal skill development. Well-written theory statements combined with highly pertinent exercises give it an audience much broader than the youth who were Johnson's original target population. I have used it myself in preservice training of counselors. Practicing counselors who want refresher work on basic interpersonal skills could use it in developing inservice training programs for themselves.

Just as the book is more "put together" than written, it seems appropriate to call Johnson's target an experiencer rather than a reader. Readers are likely to miss the whole point; using what Johnson has done here requires involvement. He gently introduces the experiencer to such central concepts as self-disclosure, trust, acceptance, listening, confrontation, feeling expression, reinforcement, modeling, and conflict resolution. The importance and the parameters of each concept are simply stated. The experiencer is then led, through questions and exercises, to understand, to perform, and to self-evaluate a variety of interpersonal skills. The effect is a rather quick entry into experiences highly relevant to helping skills.

Those who have attended human interaction labs will find much in here that is familiar. The Johari Window, nonverbal trust exercises, one-way and two-way communication, strength bombardment, the prisoner's dilemma, and many more are here. It is a rich source of training events. Johnson combines the lab approach with such concepts as Harris' *I'm OK—You're OK* in one chapter, with Porter's response styles in another, and with behavioral counseling principles in two other chapters.

The only really annoying quality of the book is the occasional absolute statement which in its steadfastness belies the humanistic orientation. Such a statement as "If you cannot reveal yourself, you cannot become close to others, and you cannot be valued by others for who you are" has the either-or quality one finds in rhetoric but rarely in life.

There are many signs of a quality job here, but most important to me are the limits and the cautions about which Johnson is most explicit. This is in clear contrast to some of the commercially oriented media in the humanistic psychology area that are better known for enthusiasm than for awareness. The limits of self-disclosure, the cautions about nonverbal exercises and the riskiness of trust let experiencers know that Johnson is sensitive to their needs and cares about them. There are just not a lot of folks who can do themselves what they would have others do while they are helping them to do it. Johnson does it in *Reaching Out.—Stanley J. Gross, Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything,* including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.* The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

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ARTICLES

IN THE FIELD

POEMS

Feedback

Cross-Fertilization for Change

Your editorial in the November 1972 issue is one which raises a basic question in my mind. You say, and I agree, "We need the best thinking we can get to help answer the question: How do you get people and institutions to abandon their accustomed ways of doing things and try something else?"

My question is: Can we expect to get the best ideas regarding social change from within our profession, or must we look to other disciplines for help? It occurs to me that what may be needed is cross-fertilization with some discipline where social change is a specialty, as, for example, in the field of sociology or in the profession of social work, where the concern is community organization and social action. Or possibly we need to consult with the futurologists, who are deeply concerned that we may not be able to change fast enough even for human survival. Finally, there are the systems analysts, who recognize clearly that every change in the cultural fabric often means change in all related areas.

Thus your question may lead to more co-operation with other areas of study, and such cooperation may be most fruitful. But here too we meet deep professional resistance. Are we as a profession sufficiently change oriented to be able to want to implement such cross-fertilization? Since we are a relatively young profession, and since we all face the problem of facilitating changes in individuals, we may be in a favorable position to accept the necessity for change in ourselves.

L. R. BRISTOL
Tallahassee, Florida

Limited Portrait of a Feminist

This is a response to the item in the *Feedback* section of the November 1972 issue of the P&G JOURNAL entitled "Is This Liberation?" The anonymous author's hostility is apparent; her surface knowledge of what the women's movement is trying to accomplish is also apparent.

She portrays a "feminist" as one who burns her bra, divorces her husband, reads only radical books such as *Sisterhood Is Powerful,* is aggressively domineering in her profession, dislikes men, and refuses to wear makeup.

This is a severely limited portrait of a feminist. The women's movement attempts to give women a *choice* of what they wish to do by making them aware of more alternatives, not just the few stereotyped roles we now have of "secretary, sexpot, sow, spender, civic actor and sickie (from Cooke's *The New Women)*"—all of which are limiting, dehumanizing, and ridiculous to us as persons in our own right.

I know feminists who are married, who like men, whose children are not in day care centers, who do not work outside the home, who wear makeup, yet who work actively for human rights in the areas of job discrimination, male-female and female-female relationships, educational opportunities, child care facilities, and abortion repeal.

Most of all, I resent deeply the insidious implication that to be different and not "feminine" is bad and unhealthy. If that were the case, why should there be so many women seeing psychiatrists today? The women's rights movement is searching for

new answers and better life styles but does not condemn those who choose to be housewives.

SHEILA PENNIE
Jacksonville, Florida

Support All Roles for Women

As a counselor, who just happens to be a woman, I was very pleased with the October 1972 PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL. "Women and Counselors" is not only a timely issue but also a very important one.

There is one point that deserves some attention. In today's society, counselors must be supportive of the woman who chooses the role of wife and/or mother. We need to be open to the needs of each individual woman.

SANDRA KEITH
Atkins Elementary School
Van Horne, Iowa

Author, Wife, Mother . . .

I sit here with a migraine headache, wanting to write an article for a coming issue of the P&G JOURNAL concerned with women. You probably think that if I really wanted to write I would, that my migraine is just a cop-out. I can remember comments in past journals about the small number of writers in our field. But I have some questions to ask you.

Do you know what it feels like to be unable to find the key to the drawer containing the stamps that were locked up the last time the four-year-old licked the whole $8.00 roll? The key you had in your hand just before the telephone rang but not after you returned from car-pooling four eight-year-old boys home from school.

Or have you ever experienced the feeling that comes after locating the stapler, a necessary item for putting cover pages on articles because reviewers must never know who you are? How they could discover this from my name I don't know, since often I don't know who I am myself. Sometimes I get the counselor part of me confused with the mother part and vice versa. And then there are my author, wife, and friend roles to contend with. Anyway, that beautiful stapler appears under the sofa after an hour-long search. But it is out of staples. This I should have expected when I found several of them while crawling on my hands and knees.

Can you understand that, with determination at its peak, I lock myself in the study to shut out calls for drinks and requests for an unbiased referee for the fight? Full stapler, stamps in hand, I proceed through one page of the manuscript, with the necessary two carbon copies. Savoring success, I remove the manuscript from the typewriter, only to discover that someone spilled coke on the carbon paper. I should have known that something was wrong when I found the carbon paper so readily.

The manuscript finally retyped, I need only address the envelope. The address is in the last copy of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, which I readily locate because I have threatened to hang by the thumbs anyone caught touching my professional journals. Alas, the covers are stuck to the pages with airplane glue, glue which evidently came from the outer world, because no one in this family has ever seen, let alone touched, any airplane glue. After prying the pages apart, I find that my article is probably too late for inclusion in the appropriate issue. My most recent journal is several months old. It was forwarded three times before it reached me as I followed my husband halfway around the world.

I have a good start on tomorrow's migraine, but I would not trade places with any man in a well-run office. How could his sense of accomplishment, after his efficient secretary types and corrects his manuscript, compare with mine? I don't need acceptance slips to feel a sense of accomplishment. I have won a major war when I drop the manuscript in the mailbox.

DEANNA H. BOWMAN
Colorado Springs, Colorado
(Doctoral candidate, Auburn University
Auburn, Alabama)

An APGA Research Journal?

Since you have assumed the editorship of P&G, it has become a vibrant, relevant, exciting journal. I have really been impressed with your efforts to make the JOURNAL more meaningful to the practitioners.

I like the changes you have made in the JOURNAL and was alarmed when I read (in the September 1972 Editorial) that the Editorial Board agrees that "you have gone too far in the opposite direction; it is time to restore the balance." It is tragic that leaders in APGA, an organization which has consistently resisted change and is obsolete in so many ways, are trying to strangle the new life you have breathed into the organization.

I commend you for the outstanding contribution you have made to the APGA members through the improved quality of the P&G JOURNAL. I personally believe it is the only *significant* change in APGA that has had any real meaning to the membership in the past five years.

I strongly urge that you reconsider the decision to move back toward a research journal. Contrary to the opinions expressed by the Chicago conventioneers and the members of your Editorial Board, I believe the major-

ity of members applaud the direction you have chosen for the P&G JOURNAL. Its format and content certainly make it more relevant to their job responsibilities.

I suggest that those research-happy Editorial Board members and their convention friends initiate a new publication, such as the *APGA Research Journal,* and not deny the practitioners your efforts to help keep the membership abreast of the times.

FRANK MORIN
New Canaan High School
New Canaan, Connecticut
(Past President, ASCA)

[Editor's Note: I want to make clear that there never was any thought of making P&G a research journal. At most, a monthly issue might include a selected article or two on research or a special column on research interpretations for the counselor. Do readers have any reactions to the idea of a separate research journal within APGA?]

Psychological Education: A Prime Function of the Counselor

Special Issue Coming in May

The counselor should sit in his office and wait for "sick" individuals to come trotting in with a list of readily categorizable symptoms. Right? Wrong, say Allen Ivey and Alfred Alschuler. In the May issue of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, which they have guest edited, they advocate a new definition of the counselor role: that of the psychological educator, who actively intervenes in the life of institutions—which may themselves be "sick"—and teaches healthy skills to others.

Psychological education. Affective education. Humanistic education. By whatever name it's known, this relatively new discipline is already providing important levers to help counselors increase their effectiveness. This Special Issue of P&G shows how. Articles are directed toward helping counselors, personnel workers, employment counselors, and rehabilitation counselors to draw on the psychological education movement. The articles provide a wealth of procedures, techniques, exercises, and games for the counselor who aspires to be a psychological educator.

And it's not all happening only in P&G. The May issue of *The School Counselor* contains a special feature on the same theme. Editor Marguerite Carroll has collected four articles on psychological education and gives some of her own reflections on the topic.

May will be a fruitful month for APGA'ers concerned with this vital new role of the counselor. Dig in!

Editorial

CALIBRATE THE COUNSELOR

When an experimental counseling program fails, how do we know whether it was the *idea* that was at fault or the *people* who implemented the idea? This is a sensitive topic for an editorial, but after reading many hundreds of manuscripts, I believe that it cries for public discussion.

I'm thinking not only of formal research evaluations but also of informal reports, where someone describes a new technique or program and offers some evidence to indicate that it was or was not effective. In either case, what reasons are offered for the success or the failure? Sometimes none, and in those cases we almost always return the manuscript to the author with the comment that the experimenter is probably in the best position to at least speculate on the reasons for success or failure.

But when reasons *are* offered, they usually are external to the people who conducted the project. Perhaps the idea is blamed, or perhaps the "instrument" was not reliable or valid enough to detect the intangible changes that occurred.

However, there is increasing evidence that perhaps the key element in any helping activity is the skill and attitude of the person doing the helping. If the project failed to achieve its goals, maybe it is because the counselors (or whoever did the work) were not skillful enough, or maybe they did not have sufficient confidence in their method and didn't expect it to work. Even with laboratory animals there is now evidence that an experimenter's expectations affect the animal's behavior in the maze or other experimental situation.

And if the project succeeded, who is to say that different counselors would have succeeded using the same methods? Again the evidence from replication studies suggests that later workers tend not to enjoy the same degree of success as the pioneers.

For me the conclusion is inescapable: Every evaluator and every person reporting a new technique or program should make a serious effort to, in effect, calibrate the counselor. That is, there should be some gauge of the specific skill or competence of the person or persons who experienced the success or failure and even some indication of the person's attitudes and expectations.

Neither courtesy nor vanity should be permitted to block an honest conjecture that maybe the method didn't work because the people applying it weren't good enough at it, or that maybe it did work in part because the people expected it to work and had a high enough level of the specific knowledge and skill required.

Such a practice would really complicate the life of innovators and researchers, but without it we are often at a loss to know *what* to conclude. ■ LG

Counseling: the reactionary profession

WILLIAM BANKS

KATHRYN MARTENS

Traditionally counselors have functioned as agents and apologists for the established system. Current counseling theory and practice place the onus for change on the individual. The existing social order is absolved of responsibility for individual and group problems that exist within the structure of its institutions, and persons and groups who express attitudes or who demonstrate behavior inconsistent with the prevailing norms are labeled "deviant" or "abnormal." If counselors are to become more responsive to their clients' needs, they must acknowledge the negative effects that society and its institutions can have on individuals and begin to effect changes at the institutional level.

Counselors have been acting as agents and apologists for the system for too long. Their acceptance of this role and their verbal justification of it fosters conservatism and results in a professional stance of avoiding change. Counselors function as though society and its institutions were valid by definition, and they operate on the premise that it is the individual alone who has a problem when he fails to "adjust" to the current order. The literature in counseling is replete with references to the need for individuals to adjust to or somehow learn to live with the social universe in existence at any given time. It is our belief that the dominant counseling role model is reactionary and that few professionals are interested in changing this stance.

Most helping professionals react to the people who are frustrated within the structure of today's institutions rather than to the institutions that have caused the cries of frustration. Because of this orientation, the reactionary need never acknowledge, let alone confront, any of the problems that exist in his society; it is always the *individual* who needs help. By responding in this manner, members of the helping professions threaten to do harm to the people they purport to help, for they not only believe that the individual must be adjusted to his society but also that they are in the lofty position to direct his adjustment. The following example clearly illustrates how the reactionary stance of counselors carries the very real potential of being used to the detriment of the client.

AN EXAMPLE

In 1969 the House Special Subcommittee on Education held hearings to examine the causes of campus unrest during the years 1967 and 1968. Among the witnesses appearing before the subcommittee was S. I. Hayakawa, president of San

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Francisco State College. His analysis suggested that the problems occurred because immature students were reacting childishly and naively to the situations surrounding the war, poverty, and other social problems facing the country. Congressman Roman Pucinski of Illinois agreed that the unrest was caused by deviant and immature students. He reasoned that since the government and society were functioning normally, the disruptions must have been caused, to use his words, by "mentally sick" individuals who have difficulty adjusting and relating to the established order. Additional strong support for Congressman Pucinski's line of reasoning was provided by a prominent child psychiatrist, Bruno Bettelheim, who testified that the individuals involved in the unrest were immature and indeed ill.

As a result of this and other testimonies, Congressman Pucinski told a *Newsweek* reporter of his intention to sponsor legislation that would provide mental health personnel for campuses. He proposed making federal funds available to hire psychiatrists and other mental health workers to "counsel" students away from disruptive behavior. The congressman left no doubt about the importance he attached to fitting the individual into society when he stated:

So my bill would not cover just the illness of the kids. It would also cover any teachers who either encouraged them or *did not exercise reasonable authority in discouraging them* [Yette 1971, pp. 237–38].

Evidently Congressman Pucinski believes full well in the power of the state to define "normality" or "abnormality" according to the current mainstream of American cultural values and standards. The implications for those left out of the mainstream are clear.

The attitudes expressed by Congressman Pucinski are prevalent within our institutions. Whether or not a program is explicitly planned, counselors are ex-pected to adjust students to the norms of the institution, to change "deviant" behavior into conforming behavior. Those in control of our institutions rarely ask counselors to help them understand student behavior; rather they ask counselors to help students not only understand but also adopt the "correct" behavior for adjustment to the institution. A perfect example is the liberal white counselor who seeks to help blacks adjust to society. As a counselor he should know that "black youth will not be liberated as long as the concept of help is defined and practiced from a white frame of reference [Smith 1971, p. 724]." It is our contention that the problem lies not in the counselors' ignorance of the current literature of their profession but in the fact that it is much easier—and professionally safer—for them to minister to black clients than to confront their white superiors with those practices that make their institutions oppressive. Failure to communicate and cooperate at higher levels can result in the loss of prestige, status, or even the job itself. The counselor thus accepts the role of the reactionary by default, lacking the courage even to acknowledge it as his own choice.

THE MEDICAL MODEL

The medical model dominates the training experience of counselors and therapists today; training programs further the idea that counselors should detach themselves from the social etiology of clients' problems. This stance is encouraged in the name of "objectivity" and "unconditionality of regard." The reality, which clients often perceive but counselors inevitably miss, is that the counselor's support and regard are about as objective as Congressman Pucinski's.

Society and its agents tend to use the labels associated with mental illness as means of discrediting persons or groups who express attitudes or demonstrate behavior inconsistent with the prevailing

norms. Szasz (1970) has elucidated how the mental health professions customarily promote those ideologies that are currently held in their society and suppress those that are not. Diagnosing undesirables as "mentally ill" is a ploy used by many totalitarian countries to neutralize or even imprison political nonconformists. This diagnosis is based on the assumption that the state has the right to define the behavioral and attitudinal norms of its citizens. Once the norms are so defined, persons deviating from them are, by definition, mentally ill or maladjusted. Helping these people is defined as "making them fit," and the helping professionals are called on to carry out the adjusting.

Rollo May recognizes the problem in psychotherapy when he speaks of "social conformist" approaches to mental health. He is concerned that the norms of mental health are determined by the needs and values of society and warns against

forms of psychotherapy based on an outspoken denial of any need for a theory of man at all beyond the therapist's assumption that whatever goals he himself and his society have chosen are the best for all possible men [May 1967, p. 117].

Counselors have not heeded May's warnings, largely because counseling theories and practices have been created and advanced by individuals with a particular social and philosophical perspective. This perspective cuts across theoretical lines and generational differences. With very few exceptions, the persons who write the books and articles that influence the profession are middle class white males, most of whom are affiliated with a university. Such people have successfully negotiated the path to individual success and status within the American milieu. Despite their success, or possibly because of it, they emerge both ill prepared and unwilling to attempt to deal with the social problems confronting their clients. As their priorities involve their own status and the status of the institutions they represent, they blindly refuse to perceive that others may not find their institutions acceptable, let alone helpful.

WHAT COUNSELORS DO

Persons and forces outside the therapeutic dyad have used the counselor as their agent to change client behavior so that it will be acceptable to the larger society, however unacceptable it is to the client. This process implies a lack of understanding by the counselor of his client's perceptions. The client, in turn, develops little positive regard for counseling when it is oriented to the system and therefore opposed to his own needs. Though counselors are not reactionaries in all situations, there are too few who are willing even to consider changes in their basic approach.

Most therapeutic approaches exclude an inquiry into and subsequent modification of the environment of the client. At best, the strategies suggest that the client himself should somehow act on the environment to effect desirable change; the resources of the therapist are rarely, if ever, viewed as a potential leverage for action.

Some mental health professionals are undoubtedly perceptive enough to recognize that many individuals and groups suffer because of the social and cultural assumptions inherent in the policies and practices of institutions. For example, the psychiatric intern has likely noticed the relative absence of women from the ranks of psychiatrists. And professionals certainly are cognizant of the scarcity of minorities in the "high status" professions. These professionals, however, are rarely involved in actively changing such existing inequities. Rather they are inclined either to accept cultural stereotypes ("women are too flighty to make good attorneys") or to imply that they would be very willing to see minorities and women in their professions if they

could ever find some who were "qualified." The majority of professionals simply accept the current state of affairs and, if they are white males, benefit from it. If the system has worked for them, why can't it work for others? The middle class concept of status, usually developed through professional training, makes it doubly difficult to think and act critically in the area of social and cultural oppression.

WHAT COUNSELORS CAN DO

Dworkin and Dworkin (1971), recognizing the tendency of counselors to act as representatives of established institutions, have made several suggestions about what counselors can do to actively meet the challenge of today's society. Such ideas as organizing community groups, providing draft and abortion counseling, organizing courses on ecology, and devoting "two evenings per week to interacting with youth in their environment" do have some potential for expanding the traditional counselor's awareness of societal problems. These suggestions, however, are still restricted to focusing on the problems of the individual; the focus may have shifted from "adjustment" to "means of survival," but the implication, whether intended or not, remains that the *individual* must be "helped." While it is true that counselors must continually improve their skills and approaches in working with individuals, innovations that suggest changes along only this dimension do not go far enough. We believe that change should be directed to society and to those institutions that create individual adjustment problems in the first place. If counselors are to be true helping professionals, they must function as agents of social change.

If a counselor is interested in moving beyond the role of institutional agent for social adjustment, he must take steps to assure that he can be active—that he can bring about positive change within his institution. This movement will involve processes that are perhaps not seen as part of the traditional counseling role but are actually vital to those who would seek institutional, rather than just individual, change.

The counselor must be actively involved in the total process of his institution. This involvement must include interaction at all levels—with clients, other professionals, administrators, and the community.

Clients. The effective counselor must discard the illusion of his role as that of a physician—someone that people *come to* when they need help. Even the medical profession, prompted by the demand of many young practitioners in its ranks, is moving away from the traditional model of medical care. It would seem that the counselor who spends consistently more than two hours a day in the office is somehow acting out fantasies of himself as a hundred-dollar-an-hour Madison Avenue psychiatrist.

Other Professionals. Just as we encourage an active and outgoing role for counselors with respect to clients, we feel that clients are best served if counselors adhere to the same approach regarding other professionals, particularly teachers. If counselors in fact possess the special sensitivities and skills that they claim to possess, then they must train—yes, *train*—the less capable professionals. Those would-be helpers who flinch at the mention of training should remember that modeling is quite an effective mode of learning. If other helpers can observe and identify those aspects of a counselor's behavior that are most related to success in helping, they might, with a little encouragement, imitate those behaviors. Simply stated, we feel that helpers can acquire an activist disposition.

Administrators. It is extremely necessary that the counselor be able to communicate with those who govern the institution. The counselor should under-

stand the educational and administrative philosophies under which administrators are operating and be able to communicate clearly to them his concept of his own role within the institution. When the institutional philosophy or objectives seem unclear or contradictory to the actual operation, counselors must not be afraid to ask the question that devastates most administrators: "Why?"

The Community. Our educational institutions function within a larger community and should be aware of the needs and concerns of that community. The counselor functioning as change agent should begin to involve himself in the activities of the community so that he can communicate its concerns to the institution and help in developing new programs based on needs articulated by the community. In doing this he also functions to familiarize the community with what is already being done in the school or agency and thus improves communications.

REDEFINING THE COUNSELOR

The time has passed when the counselor can sit in his office waiting for students to come in and still call himself a "helping professional." The counselor must have a clear concept of what issues or institutional practices are causing problems for the clients and others. There must be a solid base of communication between counselor and client founded on mutual trust. In order to develop this trust, the counselor may have to become more open and honest about who he is and what his own frustrations are. In order for effective relationships to be established, the problems and concerns expressed cannot stop with the counselor. Problems must be communicated to the administration and teaching staff of the institution. Helpees must see that the counselor can and will go beyond passive empathy and actually do something to effect change.

At a recent professional convention, one of the authors of this article was outlining arguments for a radically new approach to counseling when an impassioned counselor in the audience demanded to be recognized. She complained that what we were discussing was not counseling at all. The speaker agreed that the activities advocated were not within the framework of the traditional counseling role but urged that it was time to question the very nature of the counseling role itself. An uneasiness throughout the audience became apparent. Professionals who had labored long and hard to learn and inculcate in others the ideological assumptions and behavioral repertoire of counseling quite defensively avoided hearing that these assumptions and behaviors are often dysfunctional with respect to the problems of today's clientele—especially the young.

The very idea of defining a new counseling role is threatening to counselors who are comfortably entrenched in their institutions, since merely becoming aware of the causes of frustration experienced by a majority of clients today may place the helper in the position of needing help. Starting a community group or spending some time "interacting with youth in their environment" may ease a counselor's guilty conscience, but it also may allow him to successfully avoid the real issues. In these cases administrators may simply use counselors to smooth over substantive problems rather than to confront and resolve them. Counselors who allow themselves to be so used indeed compromise what power they have to help. Smith's reminder to those working with blacks applies to all members of the helping professions: "Any agent who must get authority and approval from the Establishment is obligated and therefore compromises the power that blacks seek [Smith 1971, p. 725]."

It is our hope that counselors are capable of recognizing the negative effects

that society and its institutions can have on people. Once these effects are recognized the choices become clear: Either we redefine the role of the counselor to include the role of agent of social change, or we label counseling for what it is: reactionary. In either case, it is time for us to halt our self-delusion as counselors. Complaints about counselors are increasing. Many repressive forces in society are recognizing that the counseling professions are ideal for maintaining social repression under the guise of "guidance." In the years ahead these pressures will undoubtedly increase. The response of

counselors will be interesting, though perhaps depressing, to observe. ■

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Black students/ white university: different expectations

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This article identifies the kinds of problems that are experienced by black students who attend a predominantly white university. There are explicit and implicit assumptions and expectations that the students and the university staff have about each other, but these assumptions and expectations are often incompatible. The black students have many problems of adjustment in academic, social, and personal areas. The author proposes some suggestions on how to minimize the adjustment process and foster improved communication between the black students and the university officials. Also examined is the role of high school counselors in aiding black students in making the transition from high school to college.

During the 1970–71 academic year, black students at the University of Santa Clara, a Catholic college in northern California, constituted 3.2 percent of the undergraduate enrollment, with an increase from 43 in 1968 to 102 in 1970. Of this group, 62 (60 percent) were enrolled in the first and second year classes; approximately one-third of these underclassmen had been admitted under altered admission criteria, i.e., they were not qualified under traditional academic standards.

As the number of black students on campus increased, it became evident that their expectations concerning their appropriate role in the university community were often different from and incompatible with the expectations of the administration and faculty. Since students and staff had not had interaction

previously, the interaction they were now having on campus was governed by the expectations each group associated with the status of the other. In the absence of actual contact, *status expectations* function as substitutes for knowledge (Cohen 1969).

This article examines the two sets of expectations, describes some of the problems experienced by the black students, and suggests some guidelines for university policymakers in responding to these issues. The observations made here developed out of my role as the first black female counselor at Santa Clara; in my role I counseled students and acted as a liaison between the counseling center staff and the administration in an effort to interpret the concerns of the black students to both groups.

STAFF EXPECTATIONS

Administrators and faculty members related to the black students on the basis of a set of explicit and implicit expectations they held. First, they expected that the black students would be assimilated into the university community without needing any substantial alteration of academic structure or programs. The lack of adequate support services for the high

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risk students attested to this expectation. For example, in 1970–71 there were only two full-time black staff members; one administered the Educational Opportunity Program, and the other was in charge of all university housing.

Second, black students were expected to compete academically with white students, who generally had superior high school preparation and adequate study skills. Although the university had sponsored summer remedial programs for entering minority freshmen for two years, this brief exposure to basic language arts and math was not sufficient to compensate for the years of inadequate educational facilities. Most of the faculty did not indicate by their attitudes or teaching methods a realistic assessment of the academic skills and deficiencies of the black students.

Third, black students were expected to blend into the social-cultural life of the campus. Cultural differences, socioeconomic disparities, and the growth of ethnic consciousness among these students were neither anticipated nor understood. Thus, problems relating to dormitory life, dating relationships, and extracurricular activities were often underestimated by the staff. Since many of the black students had had minimal exposure to integration, they lacked either the confidence or the skills to participate in campuswide activities. The majority of the black students participated in the Black Student Union, which developed into a vehicle for group therapy and revolutionary rhetoric for those students who were relatively alienated and culturally distinct from the rest of the campus.

Fourth, the black students were expected to be overtly grateful for having been given the opportunity to obtain a quality integrated education. When they protested or demonstrated against any policies, the administrators expressed bewildered disillusionment. Apparently, black students were expected to suspend their critical faculties and accept the status quo in return for an education.

BLACK STUDENT EXPECTATIONS

Many of the black students did not have any clearly defined college expectations; as first generation collegians, they had not undergone what Haettenschwiller (1971) has described as *anticipatory socialization* to prepare them for the complexities of college life. As Vontress (1968) has pointed out, they were hindered by parental indifference to, ignorance about, or fear of a college education.

The students' primary expectation was that the university would be very flexible in responding to their individual needs. Students who had little or no experience with a large institution expected to bypass rules, obtain unlimited financial aid, and have minor academic and social disputes settled by an administrator. When these expectations were not fulfilled promptly, the students expressed much frustration and hostility toward the staff.

Second, many students expected college courses to be a continuation of high school work and were often confused by the qualitative and quantitative differences in courses and study assignments. The combination of unrealistic academic expectations by the faculty and academic deficiencies of the students resulted in poor communication between both groups and poor academic performance, high levels of anxiety, and fear of academic failure among the students.

Third, these students had expected a greater diversity of activities and life styles at college. They had developed interests reflecting their own cultural milieu and were often unfamiliar with the values and behavior patterns of middle class white students. Their concern for establishing a separate cultural identity by wearing Afro hairstyles, dressing in mod clothes, eating soul food, and play-

ing funky music was often more symbolic than genuine. These manifestations of black identity did, however, engender a superficial cohesiveness among the students while simultaneously dramatizing their difference from the white students.

Fourth, the students expected to have greater contact with the black community surrounding the campus, i.e., the Greater San Jose area. They were eager to socialize with other blacks and to affiliate themselves with black churches and community organizations. Although these contacts were not easy to make or maintain, the rhetoric among black students about one's obligations to the black community did create a sense of isolation or guilt among many students; it also increased their feeling of alienation from the general campus community.

Fifth, the students expected that they would contribute as much to the university as it contributed to them, and this would benefit the institution. The university's acceptance of their contributions would serve as collective proof of its liberal concern, as a vehicle for diversifying the student body, and as a means of producing more educated leaders to tackle the broad social problems of our society.

Conflicts between these two sets of expectations, which were widely but not universally shared by members of each group, exacerbated certain problems and issues for the black students. The range and variety of these problems, which were presented in individual and group counseling sessions, are outlined below.

PROBLEM AREAS

During the year I counseled 22 black students (14 female, 8 male) individually and 18 (12 female, 6 male) in small groups. Six problem areas were most frequently raised in these sessions, but most students presented a multiproblem profile. Much informal counseling occurred outside of the office in rap sessions wherever students congregated.

Establishing a Meaningful Personal Identity. This problem concerned over three-fourths of the students; they displayed role confusion, anxiety, and various symptoms of the classic identity crisis (Erikson 1959). Middle class and working class black students manifested two distinct patterns. The syndrome among middle class students included self-criticism over their bourgeois roots and values, eagerness to adopt new ghetto-inspired values and behavior, rejection of former friends and activities in the white community, and guilt about their material advantages (Haettenschwiller 1971). Students from working class backgrounds expressed conflict over the college student role, displayed more anxiety about the social, cultural, and academic components of the role, and reacted defensively about perceived white racism by espousing separatism. These students exerted considerable pressure on middle class blacks to affirm their ethnic identity through the use of such external symbols as Afros and dashikis; students who did not conform to this limited stereotype of blackness and did not socialize almost exclusively with other blacks were derisively labeled "oreo cookies" or "Toms." Notwithstanding their search for cohesiveness through conformity, many of these students privately expressed feelings of inadequacy and fear of rejection by both white and middle class black students.

Academic Performance. This was the second major concern of the counselees. Several factors militated against their ability to perform well: lack of a family educational tradition, poor public school preparation, inadequate remedial and tutorial services, and poor study skills (Green 1969). Since two-thirds of the students lived in the Bay Area and visited home frequently, family and peer values often reinforced a negative attitude toward studying. At the end of the winter quarter, 59 (58 percent) of the black undergraduates were included on

the registrar's deficiency list; all of these students had one or more unsatisfactory grades, and 25 had poor grades in two or more courses.

Interpersonal Relations. Over half the students complained that there were frequent conflicts between blacks and whites as well as among the blacks themselves. Differences in communication and behavior patterns between groups from different cultural and class backgrounds generated many of the conflicts. Blacks described white students as being uptight in expressing themselves, condescending or overtly prejudiced, and too establishment oriented in their goals. Relationships between middle and working class black students were often strained because of their disparate backgrounds and their different approaches to the black power movement. One of the most highly charged topics in individual and group sessions concerned interracial dating. Particularly explosive was the assertion by black coeds that black men preferred to date white coeds while black women were not sought after by white men, thus causing the black women to feel socially deprived. Moreover, black middle class females complained that black males tended to exploit them sexually and did not recognize their need for more traditional courtship behavior. Responding to this charge, black males complained that black women often tended to be less feminine, more aggressive, and more hostile than white females, so that dating them was less enjoyable.

Autonomy. Students from extended families complained of two problems: the difficulty of making decisions without consulting adult relatives and the difficulty of adjusting to the atomized living conditions in dormitories. These students were more dependent on counselors and other staff members in managing their lives, while students from nuclear families tended to be more autonomous.

Sexual and Aggressive Feelings. This was another very salient issue, particu-

larly among black males reared in the ghetto, where the overt expression of sexuality and aggression is tolerated as part of the life style (Schulz 1969). When black males discovered that the expression of these drives was unacceptable on the campus, they were bewildered and frustrated. Some responded by assuming the stereotyped roles into which ghetto adolescents are socialized: the street-corner dude, the playboy stud, or the cool cat (Schulz 1969). Others adapted to new roles that were subtly encouraged by the campus culture, such as the black jock or the black militant. The simultaneous pressure of assuming these roles and at the same time resenting their stereotypes brought them to the counseling center to seek more satisfactory ways of coping with their environment.

Three black coeds who had illegitimate children felt stigmatized and were very ambivalent about their status as unwed student-mothers. In addition to their perception that they were viewed as sexually promiscuous by other students, they all encountered financial, child-care, and scheduling difficulties, which accentuated their distinctness. The need for black students to deny, control, or channel their sexual and aggressive drives and to learn more appropriate middle class patterns was a continuing subtle pressure by administrators.

Long-Range Career Plans. One-third of the students requested help in developing long-range career plans. Since many had not been exposed to a variety of occupations in their communities, their career choices and aspirations were very limited. Some were confused about the prerequisites for a professional career that would be tailored to their abilities, interests, and financial resources. In general, their orientation to higher education was vocational; they viewed it as a means of social mobility or a tool for social revolution rather than as preparation for educated citizenship or cultural enrichment. Nearly half the students

were in conflict about the need for returning to the black community with immediately applicable skills or pursuing graduate training that would offer them more flexibility in the wider society as well as in the ghetto.

Multiple Problems. Those students who had to deal with many problems simultaneously were not functioning at an optimal level emotionally, academically, or socially (Williams 1969). However, the problems of different expectations and mutual adaptation of black students and white university personnel are not unique to the University of Santa Clara (Altman & Snyder 1970; Gibbs 1970). Since status expectations between two different groups are stable and resistant to change, efforts to modify them must be carefully conceived and executed in order to restructure the relationship between the two groups with the least amount of conflict (Cohen 1969). Following are proposals for restructuring the expectations and the resultant relationship between black students and white university officials.

PROPOSALS FOR ACTION

Admissions Policies. A university's admissions policies must be reevaluated frequently to reflect the changing nature of the university and its student pool as well as the institution's experiences with experimental programs. Sometimes the gap between a substandard high school and a private university is too great for the student to bridge without additional post-high-school training; in these cases the student might benefit most from attending a junior college before entering the more competitive and impersonal environment of a large college campus. Students who fail in college suffer more than just the stigma of their personal failure; their alleged intellectual inferiority is confirmed for them and others, they are a great disappointment to their families, and their efficacy as role models

to other aspiring black youth is practically destroyed. Moreover, cynical and conservative alumni and politicians are all too eager to point to these failures as evidence that universities should not alter their admission standards for disadvantaged youth.

In order to reduce the casualties of the high risk admissions programs, admissions officers should be more attentive to alternative indicators that might be more predictive of a black student's success than traditional indicators, exploring such things as the student's motivation, the social and emotional supports available from his family and peers, the strength of his high school background and other precollege educational experiences, and the remedial resources available to him at the university. Other nontraditional criteria that have been frequently suggested as predicting college success for disadvantaged students are a positive self-concept, leadership potential, goal oriented activities, and personal maturity (Green 1969; Williams 1969).

High school counselors could be most helpful to college officials in the areas of admissions and recruiting. I support the recommendations of Vontress (1968) for (a) early identification and motivation of the potential college student, (b) close contact with the student's parents, (c) assistance with the bureaucratic details of the admissions process, (d) referral of the student to sources for financial and tutorial aid, and (e) cooperation with college admissions officials and counselors in exchanging relevant sociocultural data about black students.

Supportive Services. The university should provide a full range of supportive services for disadvantaged students, staffed with personnel who are familiar with the students' cultural backgrounds and sensitive in dealing with them. Staff members in all student services who have appreciable contact with minority students should be sensitized to these students' problems and concerns through

seminars ranging from their history and culture to roleplaying and psychodrama sessions. College-supported tutorial programs are imperative, for black students often have had to rely on volunteer tutors and haphazard arrangements that did not facilitate their learning. In order to maximize the success for high risk students, universities have been experimenting with a variety of policies, including summer orientation sessions, the use of programmed instruction, lighter course loads, remedial courses in basic skills, and liberal probationary policies (Egerton 1968; Williams 1969).

Another paramount problem for black students is their lack of experience in dealing with the bureaucracy of large institutions (Haettenschwiller 1971). Coordination of supportive services should therefore be emphasized in order to achieve the following objectives: (a) establishing good communication with the students to gain their trust and cooperation, (b) developing follow-through procedures to assure that the students obtain the full range of services they need to perform effectively, (c) assisting the students in developing the ability to manage their own affairs, and (d) saving valuable time for the students by reducing duplication of university services and unnecessary red tape.

Use of Aggressive Techniques. As many writers have suggested, counselors should use more aggressive techniques with black students, both in seeking them out for anticipatory guidance and in developing counseling methods to counteract directly the students' initial mistrust, apathy, or hostility (Haettenschwiller 1971; Vontress 1968). An effective counselor can help the students articulate their anxieties and at the same time help them strengthen their coping mechanisms so that they can function more effectively in the college environment (Coelho, Hamburg & Murphey 1963).

Community Relations Liaison. The university should hire someone who could assist black students in contacting families and participating in black community affairs. This could provide them with social and psychological supports to buffer the transition from their homes to the university. Students might then become constructively involved in community projects, thus offering needed skills to the community as well as fulfilling their expressed need to identify with their ethnic group. The community relations liaison model has proven very successful at Princeton University (Fields 1969).

Faculty and Staff Interaction. More opportunities should be provided for faculty and staff to interact with the black students in informal situations so that the two groups could relate to each other as individuals on a personal, nonconfrontational level. It seems probable that communication between the two groups would improve if more social and cultural contacts occurred, since such contacts are potential channels for altering the stereotyped views of each group about the other.

Increased Interracial Contact. The administration should encourage structures that would be flexible enough to foster increased interracial contact among all the students while at the same time giving black students the option of developing a sense of shared identity and community. There is some evidence that segregated dormitories and other facilities are counterproductive to promoting interracial understanding between black and white students, but black cultural organizations and Afro-American studies courses can enhance the self-concept of black students as well as expose white students to the Afro-American heritage and contemporary life style (Williams 1969).

Involvement of Black Students in University Governance. Such involvement is definitely needed (Joseph 1969). There has been a tendency for universities to

appoint the most moderate black students to those committees where an ethnic point of view was considered especially relevant. This trend is viewed by the black students as another indication of their powerlessness in the university. Universities should seek the viewpoints of black students from diverse backgrounds, not only because these students reflect the heterogeneity of views within the black community on a variety of sociopolitical issues but also because their different cultural experiences can enrich university decision making. If the university intends to remain in the vanguard of leadership in the contemporary world, it must be willing to adapt itself to the changing demography of the student population and to harness the energy and creativity of its minority students for the mutual growth and vitality of both constituencies. ■

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THE COUNSELING LAB

Listen . . . hear the voices
   of strangers become friends.
Listen . . . hear the whispers
   of secrets voices lend.
Listen . . . hear the silence
   of communion secrets bring.
Listen . . . hear the echo
   of winter and of spring.

Feel warmth and understanding,
   trust, and care.
Feel the very magic
   as love pervades the air.
Know the emanative joy
   that painful hours bring
As hidden hearts, opening wide,
   transcend the self and sing.

The ceilings and the carpet
The tables and the chairs
All witnesses to burdens
Freely given, freely shared.
The empathic walls are drenched
With joys and with sorrows.
Doorways open to compassion
Todays and tomorrows.
A place for all whose lamps are dimmed
To safely rest and dare,
Renewing strength and courage,
Recaptured faith ensnared.

Listen . . . feel . . . and know.
   With care, confusions cease.
Listen . . . hear the echo . . .
   Bathe yourself in peace.

Helen C. Roberts
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A Chicano/black/white encounter

JIMMY R. WALKER

LAWRENCE S. HAMILTON

What happens when members of three ethnic groups spend eighteen hours together in an "Encounter Weekend"? A facilitation style that placed the major responsibility for group progress on the group itself brought about marked behavioral changes among the group participants. The group progressed from distrust, suspicion, and violent rhetoric to effective communication and understanding. The interracial encounter is a powerful social tool that counselors can use to help people develop respect for each other and live together more humanely.

One of the three broad objectives set forth by the President's Commission on Civil Disorders (Kerner Commission 1968) was "increasing communication across racial lines to destroy stereotypes, to halt polarization, to end distrust and hostility, and to create common ground for efforts toward common goals of public order and justice [p. 413]." The intensive small group experience is an effective means that counselors in a variety of settings can use to help people of different ethnic groups achieve these goals and thus live and work together better.

This article is a report of such an experience, an "Encounter Weekend" involving Chicano, black, and white students and two student personnel deans, held at the University of Texas at El Paso in December 1970.

The applicability of encounter groups to situations involving interracial ten-

sions has been stated by Rogers (1970). The basic assumption is that if people from diverse backgrounds spend time together and attempt to talk to each other, the results will be improved understanding, more effective communication, and eventually positive action. Although the original sensitivity groups, or T groups, evolved out of efforts to diminish racial tensions (Marrow 1967), this approach has apparently not been used widely in interracial situations.

It is the group-centered leadership style and the commonality of goals that differentiate the project described here from the intellectualizing groups reported by Winter (1971) and the highly structured and confrontive black-white groups described by Leonard (1968) and Cobbs (1972). Using the T group methods, Rubin (1967) reported a lessening of racial prejudice in groups having one or two Negro members among eight or nine white members.

Rather than being active and directive, as most encounter group leaders are characterized (Eddy & Lubin 1971), the facili-

tators in this project followed the general facilitation style described by Rogers (1970) and Coulson (1970). This non-directive, nongimmick method places the major responsibility for group progress on the group itself. The facilitators functioned as models in helping the group members to deal with meaningful material, to interact with each other on a personal basis, and to afford respect and acceptance to all present. The primary aims of the facilitators were to keep the group together and help build a climate of freedom in which trust, openness, acceptance, understanding, and genuineness could develop. The techniques they used included careful listening, focusing on feelings rather than content, and reinforcing personal interaction. Appropriate confrontations were initiated to redirect generalizing and intellectualizing tendencies and to point out defensive or self-defeating behaviors.

THE GROUP

The participants in the group were fourteen university students—six blacks, four Chicanos, and four whites—with two white student personnel deans acting as facilitators. There were two females and two males from each ethnic subgroup plus two additional black females. Reasonable maturity and emotional stability, a record of "activism," and lack of previous encounter group experience were the selection criteria. The facilitators had extensive training and experience in facilitating encounter groups, most of which involved Chicano, black, and white members (Hamilton 1969).

The group met for eighteen hours beginning on Friday evening and culminating on Sunday afternoon. A videotape was made of the entire eighteen hours. The tape was used to analyze changes in group behavior over time, and a seventy-minute videotape was excerpted for demonstration and teaching purposes.

The stages that an encounter group usually goes through have been well delineated by Rogers. For purposes of this process analysis, Rogers' fifteen clusters of observable events have been grouped into five general categories: (a) milling and negative testing, (b) confrontation, (c) personal expression and exploration, (d) personal interaction, and (e) group solidarity and cohesion.

The following excerpts are illustrative of the general movement of the group through the five stages. In some cases the statements are not in strict chronological order, as the categories sometimes overlap. In quoting these verbatim statements, the names of the participants have been changed. The designations for sex and racial subgroups are: Chicano female, or Chicana (CF), Chicano male (CM), black female (BF), black male (BM), white female (WF), white male (WM). The white male facilitators are designated FA and FB.

Stage 1: Milling and Negative Testing (Hours 1 through 7)

For the first hour the group went through the usual milling. Several persons asked, "What are we supposed to do?" or "What's the objective of this group?" apparently without listening for or expecting answers. Expressions of distrust followed. Dot (BF): "I'm suspicious of anything that Dean _____ is behind. I always think you have an ulterior motive—trying to find out just what a certain person is thinking or what you can get out of this person."

Then there was general, impersonal "sounding," or "rapping." Jaime (CM): "I detest white liberals. If an old white woman was knocked down in the street, I wouldn't help her." Nan (BF): "I don't know what whites want to be called." Dot (BF): "I can't get out of saying 'honkie'." Dot (BF): "You [whites] are afraid to say anything because you don't want to sound like a racist or a bigot or

something." Sue (WF): "I consider people as people—as individuals. I don't think of race." Jaime (CM) to whites: "How does it feel to be a minority in here?"

Rhetorical violence—the "bloodless riot"—followed. Jaime (CM): "The only progress the white man knows is through violence. If this town were to burn tomorrow afternoon, a thousand jobs would be created overnight; new housing would go up." Anne (BF), in a soft, almost seductive tone: "It's not that we want violence, but that's our only choice."

Whites responded by expressing feelings of being intimidated or pleas for inclusion. Sue (WF): "I know what it is to be discriminated against; I'm a member of a minority—I'm Jewish." Ret (WF): "I never associated with minority races before. It's hard to know what to say, how to act." Karl (WM): "Talk to me; help me understand."

Stage 2: Confrontation (Hours 6 through 12)

In the sixth hour the first personal confrontation occurred, when FA said to Jaime (CM): "You want to try to be the top Chicano in here, but if anyone here is a genuine Chicano, it's Luz (CF)."

Anne (BF) complained about a professor she had. "Such a person shouldn't even be teaching in a university." When confronted, FA said he couldn't do anything about such matters. This caused a loud furor. The black females, supported by most of the others in the group, became very excited. Everyone seemed to express shock, dismay, and rage at the same time. The culminating statement was made by Nan (BF): "Are you dean for the students or dean for the administration?"

During the fourth stage (hours 11 through 14) the six blacks sat together. For the first two hours of the session they almost completely dominated the group.

This "black rap" was a demonstration of black solidarity united against both the Chicano and white subgroups. It ended in the thirteenth hour when one of the black males criticized three of the black females for dominating the discussion. He insisted that they be quiet so others could speak. At this point the group moved to expressing more personally meaningful material.

Stage 3: Personal Expression and Exploration (Hours 13 through 16)

The dialogue during this stage became more personal but remained generally distant and therefore safe. Anne (BF): "This is a group for understanding and for bringing things out—telling why you feel a certain way. If there was just enough of the right kind of communication and understanding, there wouldn't be that kind of discrimination and prejudice. We gotta communicate." Luz (CF): "I am strong in the things which are important to me. I don't feel it's necessary for me to prove strength. I don't think I have to communicate in order for you to respect me as a Chicana."

Another exchange: Dot (BF) to FB: "You still think I'm ignorant. I don't think you give me any credit." FB: "I'm impressed by your honesty and your quickness to perceive what's going on in here."

Stage 4: Personal Interaction (Hours 14 through 18)

Both very personal interactions and statements of group solidarity occurred intermittently starting in the fourteenth hour. About the sixteenth hour the participants began to respond to each other on a personal, as opposed to a general or stereotypic, level. This was accompanied by a lowering of voices and by members' listening attentively to each other.

Dan (BM) to Dot (BF): "You value yourself very little. I see you now as a

human being, not as a bigot or a clown." Dan (BM) to Jaime (CM): "I admire you. You have changed. The first night you were all 'cause'. I don't think you're as violent or as mean or bitter or as militant as you pretend to be." Anne (BF) to Jaime (CM), in a very low voice: "I respect you; I really do." Luz (CF) to Jack (BM): "At first I was afraid of you; now I like you." Ed (WM) to FA: "You are a very warm person. I would feel free to come to talk to you about a problem." FA to Jaime (CM): "At first I saw you as a phony, but now you come through to me as a warm and gentle person." Jack (BM) to Sue (WF): "You haven't opened up in here. You know some of the ways we feel. I wish you would talk more."

Stage 5: Group Solidarity and Cohesion (Hours 14 through 18)

In the fourteenth hour, some time after the most heated confrontation, Nan (BF) said: "We could be good friends after this three days together. We finally got people down off their causes. This is post-revolution right here."

In the last two hours there were many expressions of personal admiration and group solidarity. Although a couple of white members felt somewhat excluded and discriminated against at the end, there was a general feeling of closeness and positive group spirit. A majority felt that coming together in this manner had been a good experience.

CHANGES OVER TIME

The videotape was analyzed to determine how certain behaviors had changed during the course of the group. Both verbal and nonverbal behaviors were charted by a team of six judges, which included the two facilitators.

Verbal Behavior

Analyses clearly indicate that the group encounter produced increasing personalization of verbal behavior. Changes in the use of the personal pronouns "I,"

"you," "they," and "them" were particularly indicative of the group's progress toward its goals of understanding and communication. Using "I" in such a way that it indicates both self-awareness and the acceptance of responsibility is a mark of maturity. "You" may be used as an impersonal or personal term; the latter usage allows for interaction at the level of real meanings and feelings.

Until the fifteenth hour, the use of "I" was consistently higher than the use of "you." From that time until the eighteenth hour, "you" was used more often than "I." The use of the impersonal "you" was highest in the second hour (162 times), steadily decreasing to 29 times in the eighth hour and disappearing altogether in the sixteenth hour. Use of the personal "you," which represents an investment of the active self confronting another in the group, increased steadily after the thirteenth hour. The use of "they" and "them" was highest in the second and eleventh hours, the eleventh hour coinciding with the first hour of the "black rap." During the last two hours the use of these two pronouns diminished to almost zero.

Appellations used by the ethnic subgroups included: Spanish, Mexican, Mexican-American, brown, Chicano, spic, colored, Negro, black, nigger, Caucasian, Anglo, white, honkie, and Jewish. As in the use of personal pronouns, use of these terms changed from impersonal to personal and from negative to accepting and respectful as the group progressed.

The use of the offensive terms "nigger," "spic," and "honkie" followed unspoken but rigidly adhered-to rules. The rules that evolved were: (a) It's all right for a black to say "nigger" if he's quoting some nonblack or if he's clearly joking with a close black friend; (b) A Chicano may use "spic" if he's talking about what whites call him; (c) Blacks may call whites "honkies," but it's impolite to use it in a direct, personal manner; (d) Whites are expected to say "black" or

"Chicano" when addressing or talking about the respective individuals or subgroups.

The word "honkie" was used through the first twelve hours, mostly by one black female who insisted that she couldn't get the word out of her vocabulary. "Mexican" was used by both black and white students intermittently through the fifth hour, while "Mexican-American" was used through the eleventh hour by both blacks and whites. After that, with sporadic exceptions, the group settled on "black," "Chicano," and "white."

Immediately after the heavy black rap in the twelfth hour, everyone seemed to want to listen to each other and speak as individuals. This was in sharp contrast to the early stages, in which blacks were speaking for all blacks, Chicanos for all Chicanos, and whites for all whites. The students' willingness to speak as individuals in the later stages required some courage, because the individual ran the risk of incurring the wrath of the others in his subgroup. The subgroups, however, did not criticize any of their members for making themselves vulnerable in this fashion.

Nonverbal Behavior

Although difficult to study in any systematic fashion, eye contact patterns are good indicators of trust level in a group. Eye contact in this group clearly had different cultural meanings. The most marked behavior was by the blacks. Their eye contact across subgroup lines was guarded and fleeting until the black rap concluded. After the first twelve hours the ethnic subgroups did not differ markedly in their eye contact patterns.

Other changes in nonverbal behavior were as expected; hand and arm movements, fidgeting, smoking, tapping, and the like, tended to increase during periods of hostility, anger, and frustration. The peak period for such activity was

the eighth through the thirteenth hour. After that there was a marked decrease until, in the last two hours, there were no indicators of such behavior.

Verbal and nonverbal behaviors were recorded as being directed toward either the whole group, a subgroup, or an individual. The general focus moved from relating to stereotypic individuals and subgroups (authority figures, militants, WASPS, blacks, Chicanos) to personal concern with two subgroups (blacks and Chicanos), and then to emphasis on the cohesion and solidarity of the whole group.

OTHER CHANGES

Differences in cultural backgrounds were evidenced by behavior in the group. The following short descriptions indicate some general categories of such behaviors and how these behaviors changed over time.

The black females were the group leaders throughout the entire eighteen hours. Initially they were distrustful and attacking. They were the first, however, to make tentative moves toward being personal. Finally, their statements of group solidarity brought the group together as a cohesive unit.

Most consistent of all the group participants were the black males. They maintained an open, honest position throughout. After they felt their point had been made, they initiated the breakup of the black rap. Of all the members, they were least involved in or affected by the group's power struggles. Their straightforward confrontations served to mitigate the aggressiveness of the Chicano militant and the black females.

The facilitators were verbally challenged for such behaviors as protecting some members and confronting others. There were some general attacks involving the facilitators' behaviors prior to the encounter group. Overall, the facilitators gained respect for and appreciation of

the behavior and feelings of the group members, particularly the Chicanos and blacks. They were thus able to respond more positively and less defensively to the needs of these emerging groups. Furthermore, the group experience helped the facilitators better communicate the needs, desires, and demands of these groups to administrators, faculty, students, and the community.

The white student members first engaged in defensive behavior and then either withdrew or allied with the controlling black females. They were included and accepted in the last hours of the group meeting; however, a couple of them left the group feeling some resentment for having been discriminated against.

The Chicanos were the most diverse group. The most active among them were a militant male and a quiet but committed female. The former changed from demonstrating initial hostility to evincing more constructive behavior. The Chicana maintained her integrity and commitment to the "movement," despite attacks by the most powerful members of the group, three black females joined by the two white males.

A number of other behaviors changed over time. After the thirteenth hour there was increased use of first names. Also during that time there was a decrease in the noise level to softer, quieter tones. This was especially apparent in the last hour. In the fifteenth hour one particularly aggressive and bombastic black member listened intently to a white girl express her feelings about being discriminated against in the group.

An important finding was that the negative testing and confrontation tended to produce a more tense, more highly polarized group during the tenth to twelfth hours. Stopping the group at this point would probably have had very negative results. There are frustrations that must be endured, hostilities that must be expressed, and confrontations that must

occur in order that progress toward genuine relating may begin. If there is not the time, patience, and courage to see the group through, indications are that such a project should not be begun at all.

CONCLUSIONS

This experience demonstrated the potential of the encounter group for reducing racial tensions and helping to promote more genuinely positive relationships among members of diverse ethnic groups.

Friendships were developed both within and among the ethnic subgroups. Tensions were lowered, and anger and distrust were expressed, accepted, and dissipated. Both verbal and nonverbal cues point to a diminution of anxiety, fear, and hostility. Rhetoric was replaced with meaningful communication. Stereotypes were weakened, and the myths of subgroup homogeneity were dispelled. Derogatory name-calling disappeared altogether. Authority figures were accepted and trusted as individuals. The overall movement of the group interaction was toward relating to people as individuals rather than as blacks, Chicanos, whites, or deans.

The progress made validates the effectiveness of the particular style of group facilitation used, that is, one that places trust in and responsibility on the group. By eschewing games, gimmicks, and directed activities, the facilitators gradually became accepted as group members. In the climate of freedom that came about, the members accepted responsibility and felt free to be themselves in relating to others in the group.

The small group approach to helping alleviate interracial problems is often criticized for being a palliative, a pacification effort. The contrary is true. When people spend time together, the understanding of self and others that results tends to form a basis for effective individual action to produce necessary social and economic change. The way to pro-

duce a better world is to produce better people. The encounter group is a promising social tool for helping people learn to be more human to each other. ■

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Sometimes . . .
  In life,
  As in war
  Where the wounded lead the wounded,
  The blind are left to lead the blind
  To find the best in worlds of light,
  And offered aid will,
  To themselves, be heard
  To curse a man with sight,
  And only take the hand of someone blind.

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Counselors and learning styles

LEN SPERRY

Nearly everyone agrees that the counselor should be aware of individual differences. Many also agree that an important function of the counselor is to consult with teachers regarding individual differences in student learning performance. Although there has been much research about the relationship of learning performance and individual differences in learning style, there has been little written about how to diagnose the styles. The author presents a theoretical understanding of learning styles and suggests assessment questions that a counselor can use in observing students and consulting with teachers about different learning styles.

It is becoming increasingly clear that twentieth-century man is not acting and reacting to life in a vacuum but rather in a context. Every day he must come to terms with the environment of which he is a part. This is particularly true when one considers the dimensions of human learning, whether in a classroom or a counseling context. Here a learner interacts with an environment—a book, a programmed unit, a teacher, or a counselor. The learner changes or is educated through this interaction. The outcome and quality of this interaction are in large part a function of relevant feedback from the environment to the learner, feedback that fits the learner's particular way of learning—his learning style.

The study of learning, or cognitive, style has been widely researched by learning specialists, although counseling specialists have yet to explore this topic in depth. Yet there is every indication that learning style research has many applications to the field of counseling (Sperry 1972). The most direct applications appear to be in school settings where counselors serve as consultants to classroom teachers, but counselors in rehabilitation, employment, and vocational settings also can profit from an understanding of learning styles in clients. This article attempts to establish a conceptual framework and a list of questions that can give the counselor an indication of the learning style of a student and serve as the basis for effective consultation with classroom teachers.

De Cecco (1968) defines learning style as "personal ways in which individuals process information in the course of learning new concepts and principles [p. 75]." Nearly everyone would agree that no two students in any classroom learn the same thing in the same way or at the same rate. Some learn most easily through reading, others through listening, and still others through doing things physically. Some prefer to work under the pressure of deadlines and tests, while others like a more leisurely pace. Some learn best from being challenged by people who are ahead of them; others learn best by helping people who are behind them. Now, as counselors assume

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more and more of the role of consultant to classroom teachers, it becomes the responsibility of the counselor to know how learning styles can be assessed and what adjustments in classroom management and instruction will be necessary to optimize the student's learning performance and consequently his self-concept.

Perhaps the research on learning styles can best be considered in terms of three dimensions: learning modality, learning tempo, and learning differentiation. The discussion of each dimension focuses on assessment and suggestions for optimizing the learner's performance.

LEARNING MODALITY

Learning, or sensory, modality is a personal preference for interacting with the environment through one of the basic senses. The sensory modalities are based on the sense organs involved in seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, and tasting. The three sensory modalities of greatest importance to counselors are the visual, the auditory, and the kinesthetic, or physical.

The visual modality functions when a person attends to, thinks about, and remembers visual aspects of his environment. For example, in remembering a movie one has seen, having a precise recollection of the scenery and action would indicate a visual modality. Remembering vividly the dialogue and background music would indicate a verbal, or auditory, modality. The kinesthetic, or physical, modality refers to sensation conveyed through the sense of touch; this modality would be exemplified by one's being able to reenact some of the choreography of a particular scene.

Memory is one aspect of cognitive functioning, and thinking is another. When a person thinks visually, he thinks through images and uses his mind's eye. In contrast, verbal thinking, using the "mind's ear," does not involve images.

And kinesthetic, or physical, thinking consists of having a mental "feeling" of the texture, contour, and consistency of the environment, as through the "mind's hand" (Bissell, White & Zivin 1971).

A person's dominant learning modality appears to be formed early in life and apparently is not subject to fundamental change. For example, a student who learns principally by listening and speaking (aurally) is unlikely to change and become an outstanding reader; likewise, the "slow" learner is often characterized by a physical approach to learning and probably will always learn best through that modality. Accordingly, it is imperative for counselors and teachers to recognize and accept this fact and teach accordingly.

To ascertain the dominant learning modality of a student, the counselor could question the student about a well-known movie that the student has seen (such as *West Side Story*), asking, "What impressed you about the movie?" and "What do you remember most?" Recollection of dialogue and musical score indicates the auditory modality; of the scenery and action, the visual modality; of the movement, texture, and choreography, the kinesthetic modality.

The counselor can also observe the following: Does the student easily remember jokes, anecdotes, and speeches (auditory), or does he more easily remember written sources of information as being found on a particular page in a particular book (visual)? Does the student better remember subject matter as a result of listening to lectures and participating in discussions (auditory), focusing on diagrams and reading from the blackboard or textbooks (visual), or underlining the text and doing such activities as walking around while reading the text (kinesthetic)?

Of what interest or utility is this knowledge to counselors? Since counselors supposedly favor clients who are good verbalizers, the implication is that visual

and physical clients would be "risky" candidates for counseling. But there is more.

Although many adults have a dominant sensory preference, the three modalities usually work "in parallel"; i.e., knowledge derived from one modality supplements knowledge derived from the others. This is not the case with children, however. Developmentally, most children progress from a preference for the kinesthetic modality during the preschool years to later preferences for the visual and then the verbal modality. It is usually not until middle adolescence that the three modalities work in parallel. This, of course, is the reason play therapy and token economies—where physical objects can be manipulated by the client—work so well with children.

But, as Cuban (1970) and Riessman (1964) have pointed out, certain children never pass through these developmental stages but remain kinesthetic learners and, consequently, kinesthetic candidates for counseling. The disadvantaged youth, especially the inner-city black, is one example. In a counseling situation, this kind of client may be incorrectly perceived by the counselor as being "unmotivated," "slow," or "resistant" because of an inability to verbalize in a manner to which the counselor is accustomed.

The implications for classroom teaching methodology and grouping are clear. For example, Riessman (1964) has suggested that in order to teach reading to a student who is not basically a visual learner, the teacher must help the student to take advantage of the strengths inherent in the kinesthetic modality in order to balance his weakness. For such a student the teacher might use roleplaying, dancing, or singing. Then, when the student is confident that he has comprehended the story line, the teacher can help him to focus on the sounds and symbols that also convey the message of the story. For the auditory learner, the teacher can read the story and question the learner's comprehension. Only then can the teacher proceed to the written word. Classroom grouping could be arranged in terms of modality, thus allowing the teacher to develop instructional materials for the groups based on sense preference.

Implications for and applications to the counseling setting are numerous. Knowing a client's sensory modality preference, a counselor can choose from a variety of intervention techniques for the nonverbal client: for the kinesthetic client—psychodrama, sociodrama, play therapy, and other action oriented techniques; for the visual client—bibliotherapy, systematic desensitization, and other suggestion and self-image techniques that require the client to use his imagination.

LEARNING TEMPO

Of all the dimensions of learning style, learning tempo, or reflection/impulsivity, has the most direct implications for the educational process and therefore for counseling, especially with very young children. This dimension involves the person's evaluation of his own cognitive products—his willingness to pause and reflect on the accuracy of his hypotheses and solutions. While some children act on the first hypothesis or thought that enters their mind, others spend considerable time in reflection before deciding on a specific alternative. Reflection/impulsivity can be formally assessed by the Matching Familiar Figures Test (Kagan, Pearson & Welsh 1966). Over an age range of 5 to 11, there is an increase in response time and a corresponding decrease in errors on this test.

Since intelligence tests for children often include subtests of inductive inference as well as response uncertainty, the impulsive child's performance on such subtests may be considerably hindered, thereby lowering his overall IQ score.

Scores on these subtests correlate highly with scores on the Matching Familiar Figures Test.

Informally, the reflection/impulsivity dimension can be easily assessed. The counselor can observe the student's performance as follows: Does the student respond to questions immediately and spontaneously (impulsive) or more slowly, deliberately, and cautiously (reflective)? Do the student's answers suggest that he has grasped only the first part of the original question (impulsive) or all of it (reflective)?

Are the student's answers usually accurate (bright) or inaccurate (dull)? There are four possible categories into which the student can fall: impulsive and bright, impulsive and dull, reflective and bright, or reflective and dull. Teachers, students, and a student's classmates have different perceptions of these different types.

If an impulsive child is of high ability, he is likely to be perceived by the teacher as being very bright because he responds rapidly to the teacher's questions with correct answers. The impulsive child of low ability is likely to be perceived by both teacher and classmates as a "failure," a "wise guy," or a "dummy" because of the answers he blurts out. Interestingly, Kagan (1965) has observed that reflective children of low ability consider themselves more capable than their impulsive counterparts.

In another way, the impulsive child is at a disadvantage in classroom interactions. Teachers tend to perceive the behavior of these children as disruptive, hyperactive, and distracting. It may well be that certain children who are labeled as having "learning disabilities" may not have minimal brain dysfunction at all but may actually have impulsive learning tempos.

In his consultant role, the counselor may be able to provide assistance to the impulsive student and his teacher. Both experimental and field studies have shown that experienced reflective teachers working with groups of impulsive learners were able to foster reflectiveness in their students (Yando & Kagan 1968). And because the impulsive student may score low on mental ability tests, the counselor can suggest to teachers that the label "dull normal" or "slow learner" is really inappropriate for impulsive learners, since their IQ score suffers because of their difficulty with inductive reasoning and response uncertainty and is therefore not truly indicative of their ability.

One implication for vocational guidance is suggested: Reflective persons tend to be more suited to and successful in certain occupations than impulsive individuals. For instance, a more reflective person would do well to aspire to be a computer programmer or a certified public accountant, while a more impulsive person would be better suited to become a salesman, an umpire, or a mail sorter.

LEARNING DIFFERENTIATION

Of all learning styles, the field independence/dependence dimension is the most widely known and researched. Witkin and others (1954, 1962) have studied the phenomenon of psychological differentiation and have labeled their principal construct "analytic versus global" to indicate the intellectual and perceptual domains they are concerned with. Field independence/dependence is the perceptual aspect of the more pervasive analytic/global dimension of cognitive style.

The perception of relatively field dependent or global subjects is dominated by the overall organization of the perceptual field, whereas the relatively field independent or analytic individual readily perceives elements as discrete from their backgrounds. The field dependent person typically scores low on the Picture Completion, Block Design, and Object Assembly subtests of the Wechsler

Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) and has difficulty overcoming the influence of superimposed complex designs when asked to find simple forms in an embedded figures test. Witkin and others (1962) have reported sex differences, indicating that females are relatively more field dependent and males field independent. Developmental studies indicate that cognition becomes progressively more differentiated and that perception becomes more field independent with age, up to late adolescence.

Witkin (1965) also noted differences in the type of defense mechanisms likely to be adopted by the individuals at the two extremes of the analytic and global style when confronted by conflict and stress situations. Analytic individuals are more likely to use specialized defenses such as intellectualization and isolation, while global individuals are more likely to use primitive defenses such as denial and repression. Psychopathology in analytic persons is more likely to involve problems of overcontrol, overideation, and isolation, and in severe conditions delusions are more likely to develop. On the other hand, psychopathology in global persons is more likely to involve problems of dependence, with symptoms such as alcoholism, obesity, ulcers, and asthma. In severe conditions hallucinations are likely to develop.

Formally, the analytic/global style is assessed using the Embedded Figures Test developed by Witkin. This test is comprised of a set of complex geometric patterns in which simple figures are embedded. Scores on the Embedded Figures Test correlated very highly with scores on the WISC subtests of Picture Completion, Block Design, and Object Assembly.

Informally, the analytic/global style can be assessed through observation and questioning. Does the student tend to ask factual and general questions (global) or specific questions that involve analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (analytic)? Does the student tend to accept informa-

tion at face value and settle for concrete explanations (global), or does he seek the reasons behind the facts (analytic)? Does the student have a good sense of inner organization (analytic), or does he have difficulty planning work when confronted with a complex task (global)? Does the student have great difficulty and demonstrate a lack of interest in putting together moderately difficult commercial puzzles (global), or is this task relatively easy for him (analytic)?

It may seem as though the analytic or field independent person has an advantage over the global or field dependent person in terms of everyday functioning. Field dependent persons, however, have been observed to be more sensitive to social stimuli and more adept at the art of interpersonal accommodation, even though they are more vulnerable than field independent persons to the persuasions of salesmen, politicians, and others. Thus, in a complex social world, it may be advantageous to be more global than analytic.

Little research evidence is available about educational planning. Yet Dyk and Witkin (1965) have found that mothers of field independent children introduce their children to new situations by careful description and explanation and thus can serve as models for teachers engaged in formal instruction. On the other hand, it was found that mothers of field dependent children were able to provide their children with only vague global accounts when introducing them to new situations and experiences. It would appear that both teachers and students who are basically analytic or field independent tend to be viewed as successful in schools where higher level cognitive objectives are the standard.

The analytic/global dimension seems to offer as much application to the vocational and employment counselor as to the school counselor. Dinkmeyer and Muro (1971) have found that the effective group counselor is relatively field

dependent, since he tends to be more interpersonal and less directive than the field independent counselor. Goldschmid (1967) has found that more analytic persons tend to favor nonperson occupations and choose college majors in the sciences, while more intuitive and global individuals tend to favor person oriented occupations and choose humanities majors. Earlier, Roe (1956) had suggested a similar proposition.

CONCLUSION

The need to understand individual differences—especially learning styles—is emerging as the number one priority for the teacher and the counselor. Hopefully, the consideration of these three dimensions of learning style, the assessment questions, and the suggestions will be of some help to counselors in all settings. It is obvious that much more theory and research is needed in this area, but it is equally obvious that a counselor functioning as a consultant to classroom teachers must become more conversant with individual differences in the learner and the ways in which these differences affect the student's success in learning and his consequent view of himself. ∎

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"GO-GO" COUNSELING: NIGHTMARE OR PREDICTION?

8:00 a.m. The day begins. With a grinding of muted gears, the conveyer belt slowly begins to move ahead. The first counselee, in his own modernized coal car, glides through the door marked ENTRANCE in large neon lights. As the car moves slowly by the long counter, the counselor keeps pace and the counselee begins to state his problem. The counselor listens attentively and, as they reach the end of the counter, she selects a dittoed sheet from one of the several stacks and says, "Read this and you will solve your problem." The surprised counselee clutches the valuable paper as the car bangs through the exit doors and an illuminated digital counter flashes on with the number 1. In the background is heard the muted voice of the principal saying, "You better do more, you better do more, you better do more." As the second car glides in, the voice changes to a muted "Go, go faster, go, go faster, go, go faster!"

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Tomorrow comes to us in dreams today

a fantasy by SALLY A. FELKER

Joe shifted his position, stuffed his left hand under the pillow, and pulled the blanket over his shoulders. He wanted desperately to sleep, but his mind kept spinning out dissociated thoughts, like some foolish machine with a jammed shut-off mechanism. In the corner of the room a single fly droned lazily, and for a moment the sound became the whole focus of his senses. Joe wondered why he had suddenly begun to hear it so clearly now; he hardly ever noticed flies in the daytime. He realized then that he had never given much consideration to flies at all except to recognize them as a general nuisance.

"Some people are flies," he thought. "A bothersome buzz, half noticed, half ignored, and brushed aside at the moment they start to light." He was intrigued by the metaphor. "All the good things are put away or covered so they can't get at them, and when they buzz crazily, crashing to their deaths, they're hardly noticed. . . . I'm a fly." This thought was disconcerting; Joe deliberately avoided pursuing it.

It wasn't surprising that Joe's thinking should lead to such a conclusion. His whole mood had taken a rather dismal turn in the past several days. He was at one of those junctures in life where things aren't really bad enough to change but not really good enough to maintain. It was as if everything had begun to taste flat some time ago but he hadn't really noticed it till last week. Since then he had spent many hours turning thoughts over in his mind and had gotten absolutely nowhere. Why did he feel this way—useless and worn? He couldn't say. And now getting to sleep was impossible. It had seemed such a convenient escape from thinking, but it wasn't working well.

It occurred to him that he should talk to someone about this situation. His wife, Jane, perhaps? He dismissed this idea, knowing she would feel that he was blaming her. It would have to be someone objective, someone professional. The idea of seeing a counselor was comforting to him. It offered some hope of relief. It also meant that he wouldn't have to face this thing alone. And it meant he could stop thinking about it for now and perhaps get some sleep.

"Tomorrow I'll see someone," Joe decided. "Tomorrow. . . ."

The next morning he got up early, not forgetting his decision. He looked through the directory and telephoned a place that was described as offering all types of counseling services for all ages—the Institute for Living and Learning, listed as part of the Human Sciences Complex. The address given in the ad

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was Central City, transamatic stop number 18. The information flashed through his mind and became imprinted, a permanent photograph.

In a short time Joe was inside the transamatic, speeding toward Central City. He sat back in his seat and tried to relax the tightness that had invaded his body. A *Public Information Bulletin* lying on the seat next to him caught his attention. He began to leaf through it rather absently, hardly stopping to read, but then an item forced his attention: "Congress Debates Lowering Retirement Age." The article discussed a bill before Congress that, if passed, would lower the mandatory retirement age to forty and go into effect the first of next year. Joe felt rather uneasy reading it. He was forty-one.

In no time, it seemed, a voice announced, "Transamatic termination, stop 18." Joe folded the *Bulletin*, pushed it into his pocket, got up from his seat, and made his way to the exit sign. A very fat man with a beard had dropped some papers and was trying to collect them from the aisle, but people kept walking over the sheets just as he tried to grab them. Joe thought about helping the man but changed his mind. He did try not to step on any papers as he squeezed past.

Outside the terminal the jumble of sounds and the heavy air assaulted his senses. Joe paused for a moment to get his bearings and then began to walk toward the huge dome that dominated the view from the terminal gate. He knew it had to be the Human Sciences Complex. He moved as quickly as he could; his mind was crowded with assorted thoughts that he didn't wish to order, and the quick pace kept him from having to bother.

He soon arrived at the entrance of the dome. He pressed the intercom buzzer at the gate, indicating that his destination and appointment had been confirmed that morning. The gate divided

and disappeared as he walked toward it, reappearing behind him and shutting soundlessly after he walked through. He picked out his location on the large directory board and stepped onto the designated moveway. "ILL is one of the most impressive buildings of the Complex," Joe thought. "Reassuring, at least, in that respect." But the closer he got, the less sure he was that he should have come.

Inside, Joe found a comfortable seat in the waiting area and began to read the *Bulletin* where he had left off. He had hardly begun when a voice interrupted.

"Good morning, sir. Welcome to ILL. We hope we can be of service to you. Have you made a classification of the type of assistance you wish?" The voice was coming from the telescreen. Joe's eyes focused on the very attractive, smiling young woman who was speaking.

He pressed a button on the arm of his chair and responded, "Yes, Life Style Assistance, please." The words came out automatically and without hesitation.

"Fine," the young lady on the screen replied. "Then it won't be necessary for you to go through the general intake procedure. You may go directly to section D on the fourth level of the building. The elevator for section D is on your left. When you arrive, be seated, and one of our Life Style Counselors will be with you very shortly."

Joe got off the elevator at level four and took a seat. It was true; in no time a young man was walking toward him, hand extended. Joe got up to acknowledge the greeting.

"I'm Mr. Samuelson," the young man said, heartily pumping Joe's hand up and down. "Won't you come into my office?"

Joe followed Samuelson into his office, and they both sat down. There was a look of efficiency about Samuelson. He was all clean edges; the cut of his suit, his profile, even his teeth conformed to the image.

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Samuelson began. "I'll need some general information from you, Mr. Adams—general things for our Information Bank so we can begin processing your case data."

"Surely," Joe said, nodding his head at the same time.

"Name."

"Joe Adams."

"Age."

"Forty-one."

"Forty-one seems more like a situation for our retirement specialist, what with only four years left," Samuelson said.

"I've thought of that, but I don't want to take the retirement option yet," Joe found himself saying.

"Then the bonus retirement payments are of no concern to you, I would take it?"

"No, not really."

"Have you discussed this with your spouse?"

"I have none at the time."

"None at the time—does that mean you have previously contracted with a spouse or spouses?"

"Yes."

"How many, may I ask?"

"Three."

"Were any of them child-rearing contracts?"

"Yes, one—the last one."

"How many children?"

"One, a lovely girl, two years old."

"When was the contract terminated?"

"Two months ago."

"Custody of the child go to your spouse?"

"Yes."

There was a long pause.

"Mr. Adams," Samuelson began, a slight edge in his voice. "I must ask whether this problem might not be related to your recent marriage contract termination. We frequently encounter individuals who seek life style counseling soon after the termination of marriage contracts, particularly in the case of those that have involved children." His voice

softened. "I don't mean to imply that you don't know your own mind, but have you resolved this termination?"

"Yes," Joe said abruptly, then paused. "Well, perhaps not entirely. I guess I haven't really accepted it."

"Tell me, Mr. Adams—may I call you Joe?"

"Yeah, sure."

"Did you seek postmarital adjustment counseling subsequent to the termination?"

"No, I thought I could manage without it."

"That's an error that a lot of persons make, Joe, particularly our older clients." Samuelson murmured with a sigh of resignation. "Tell me another thing, Joe. Was yours a pre-CM contract?"

"Yes. The mandatory Computer Matching Procedure wasn't in effect when we decided to marry."

"I guessed as much. Most of our clients with postmarital adjustment problems are pre-CM people. If I may suggest this, Joe, it might be better for you to begin with postmarital adjustment counseling. Then, if you still wish to change your life style, I'll be glad to work with you personally and see that we arrange something that will be satisfying."

"Well, how do I make arrangements for postmarital adjustment counseling?" Joe asked, looking Samuelson directly in the eyes. Samuelson returned his gaze steadily, but Joe could tell that the counselor was already far away. Samuelson straightened up in his chair and reached for the intercom.

"I'll be glad to arrange that for you, Mr. Adams. Just a moment." He pressed a button on the desk console. "Postmarital Adjustment Counseling, please."

"Yes," a voice returned. "This is Appointment Coordinations."

"I have a Mr. . . ."—Samuelson looked down at his note pad—"a Mr. Adams here at present who wishes to speak to

one of our PMA Counselors as soon as possible."

"Ms. Blackwell is free."

"Fine. I'll have the gentleman go right up to see her." Samuelson pressed another button on the desk console and raised his eyes slowly to look at Joe.

"Level seven. The elevator is located right off the reception area. Good luck."

He stood up behind his desk and extended his hand. "Goodby, Mr. Adams. If you should make your way back to our area, please feel free to ask for me." Joe stood up, shook Samuelson's hand, turned, and walked out.

At level seven he found Ms. Blackwell waiting in the reception area. She was a tall, unsmiling woman who reminded him of his high school English teacher. She had the same sense of remoteness in her expression.

"Hello, Mr. Adams," she said. "Why don't you come with me." He didn't reply but simply followed her.

She allowed him to enter the office first and closed the door firmly, as if somehow to secure them both together. It was a type of now-we-can-begin signal, Joe thought, so he began to speak even before he sat down.

"The reason I came to you—"

"Please, Mr. Adams—may I call you Joe?" She hurried on in order to get in the perfunctory introduction before anything else happened. "I'll check the IR recording first; it will save some time. We use an Information Retrieval format here, which saves going over things from prior appointments and so forth." She paused, looking directly at him. "You know about our recording and processing approach, don't you?"

"Ah-h-h . . . no." Joe stirred in his chair and began to smooth back his hair. He always smoothed back his hair when he was tense.

"Mr. Adams—Joe—" Her voice dropped. "As you talked to Mr. Samuelson, a recording was made of your conversation, and it was processed and summarized for our Data Bank. The summary was then recorded, so that all I have to do now is designate the appropriate code and then hear a playback of the summary. It saves innumerable hours for us here and frees your time and mine so we can really keep the counseling process moving."

"I see," Joe returned, and he leaned back in his chair, not caring to look at Ms. Blackwell for the moment.

She picked up an earphone from the desk console and pressed it to her left ear, tilting her head in a quizzical way but otherwise remaining expressionless.

The silence seemed to drag on interminably. Joe glanced around the office uneasily, being careful to avoid looking at Ms. Blackwell. His mouth felt dry, so he began to swallow repeatedly. The something that seemed trapped in his throat would not go away.

"Okay," Ms. Blackwell said, arching her eyebrows. She returned the earphone to its cradle on the desk console and leaned back in her chair, as if to examine Joe from a better vantage point.

Joe suddenly felt very warm. He wanted to stand up, to walk around the room, but he didn't.

"Joe, why don't we talk a bit about your last marriage," Ms. Blackwell began.

"What's there to say? It didn't work out. My spouse decided to terminate, and that was it." Even though he tried to control his voice, to be very matter of fact in discussing his marriage, he sensed that Ms. Blackwell could see through his pretense.

"But," Ms. Blackwell interrupted, "it seems that it's not that simple. You've not really adjusted to the termination, have you?"

Joe felt his breath rushing out, as if it had been trapped for a long time somewhere in his body and was now being freed. His shoulders dropped. He looked away from Ms. Blackwell. Her eyes were like rivets. He couldn't stand her eyes. He swallowed again.

"I didn't wish to terminate, but there was nothing I could do, of course. Jane didn't wish to continue and refused to go to the Relationship Group after the first session."

"Were you depressed then, Joe?"

"Yes, I . . ." Joe didn't seem to be able to go on.

"You what? Try to finish the sentence, Joe."

Joe stirred in his chair and then pressed his hand to his temple. His hand trembled visibly.

"I didn't want to go on living. There seemed to be no point."

"And now, Joe? How about now? Do you still feel that way?"

Joe looked down at the floor. His eyes began to blur. He knew that if he tried to answer he would lose hold of everything.

"Joe," Ms. Blackwell said softly, "you haven't answered. Do you still feel that way?"

"Yes." Joe said it so softly that he wasn't sure he heard it himself. Everything abruptly left him. His body went limp, like a marionette whose strings have suddenly been cut by some cruel, unthinking hand.

"Joe, why didn't you admit that as soon as you came? Why didn't you say you wanted to see a suicidologist? You have a choice, you know." Ms. Black-well's voice was very quiet, and her words seemed far away. Joe wished they would get no closer, because he knew what she would say next. The words she now began to speak seemed to be printed in front of his eyes, and he was reading them while she spoke.

"Many people feel they don't want to continue living. You're not the first. But you see, Joe . . ."—Ms. Blackwell leaned forward intently in her chair, as if she were about to share a marvelous secret—"if you really feel you don't wish to live any longer, we can help you. Your life is your own. Whatever you decide to do, we can help you."

The voice, the words, everything had a hypnotic quality. Ms. Blackwell's face drew closer and closer to Joe's, till it was all he could see. And her eyes—rivets . . . bright . . . inescapable. . . . He wanted to get away, but his body felt like stone.

Suddenly he jumped up and grabbed Ms. Blackwell's shoulders. He pushed. And pushed. His arms were steel rods boring into the soft flesh of her shoulders, and then—

Everything blurred, and the jumble of images, feelings, and sounds slipped away momentarily into a comforting darkness.

The darkness burst into day as the sunlight streaming through the blinds woke him. The pillow fell to the floor. Beside him, Jane breathed softly and steadily. ∎

Prison Rehabilitation: Concept Associates, Inc.

ROBERT D. McCOY

In September 1971 a self-help project called Concept Associates, Inc., was started at Parish Prison in New Orleans. While most penal rehabilitation programs educate inmates and teach them a trade, the work of Concept is more thorough. The inmates aid each other with their problems by concentrating on inner changes and the power of positive thinking through four classes that are held six nights a week at the prison.

The four classes are: "Concept Therapy," which is group therapy; "Tell It Like It Is," in which one inmate is put on a "hot seat" before his fellow inmates; "Public Speaking and Speech Therapy," which prepares prisoners for the outside world and job interviews; and "Goal Setting," which encourages job goals and preparation for specific occupations. Outside speakers come in for the last three classes, but the "Concept Therapy" sessions are entirely prisoner-run, with only prisoners allowed. These sessions do, however, receive outside help from two professionals of the Louisiana State University in New Orleans Group Program, who go to Parish Prison once a

week to train the inmate group leaders in group therapy techniques.

Although every prisoner is eligible to join Concept Associates, Inc., including those awaiting sentencing, all prospective members must go through a four-day trial period with a peer jury before they are accepted into the program. Sincerity is the main criterion for acceptance; inmates who desire an affiliation with Concept for the purpose of trying to obtain either a reduced sentence or influence with officials are not admitted. As of this writing, 130 convicts have joined.

From January to June 1972, 62 members of Concept were released from Parish Prison, and 45 located jobs; only 2 have been fired from their place of employment, and only one has returned to jail. The national average of criminal recidivism is 75 percent over a three-year period. If this first year is any indication of the effectiveness of Concept Associates, Inc., what is it about the program that makes it work?

First of all, the organizers of this inmate-run prisoner rehabilitation venture went through the proper channels of authority. The prisoners sought and received the approval and endorsement of their warden, the city police superintendent, three criminal district court judges, and a state government representative.

Second, Concept has a sponsor program in which outside people aid and advise the inmates. Currently the group has 47 sponsors who write an inmate once a week, visit him once a month, and help him financially, if possible. When the prisoner is released, the sponsor stays with him the entire first day he is free,

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tries to aid him in finding a job and an apartment, and, through continuing contacts, helps him stay emotionally stable so that he will not return to a life of crime.

Third, the association has an "outside" central office, a job placement director, two local law students who contribute their time and knowledge to the project, and a halfway house; most of these arrangements were set up with the help of one of the criminal district court judges.

Finally, the prisoners' honest and open exposure to each other's problems, coupled with their interaction in the four classes, tends to orient them to a hopeful future. From prisoners released and from inmates still in jail, comments concerning this program have been along the following lines:

"We have no more mental illness than anyone anywhere else. The main difference between us and the man on the street is that we have found destructive ways to work out problems others work out in socially acceptable ways. We are changing that."

"When I came in for my sentence I was faced with the prospect of losing my wife and kids, and that made me really think about what was happening. I found the answers were in my head, and I realized it was my attitude and character hang-ups that brought me to jail. I found some answers in Concept."

"I discovered things about myself that I wasn't aware of, like my dominating and independent personality. I like to manipulate other people, and I place a great value on material things. I'm working on these things now in Concept and hope I'm overcoming them."

Concept Associates, Inc., is expanding. It has just opened a division with 27 members in the state prison at Angola and another one at the Louisiana Correctional and Industrial School in De-Quincy. The association has also contacted Milne Boys' Home in the hope of starting a juvenile program there. It is planned that eventually every jail and penal institution in Louisiana will have a Concept division. And if the interest, dedication, and help of local and state rehabilitation counselors keep pace with the project, the plan will come to fruition. ■

Closing the School-College Communication Gap

HAROLD KLEHR

JULIUS MENACKER

There has long been a tendency for insularity among counselors working at different levels of educational institutions. The traditional lack of coordination and communication among counselors at the high school, community college, and university levels has contributed to serious problems of poor articulation, which have only recently received belated recognition (Kintzer 1970; Knoell & Medsker 1965; Menacker 1968).

There are two reasons for the current interest in improving interlevel counselor interaction. One is the great expansion in the college attendance rate, with particular focus on those whose higher education has been made possible by the unprecedented expansion of community colleges during the 1960's. The importance of this level of higher education is underscored by the fact that since the fall of 1969 more freshmen have been entering public two-year than four-year colleges. The second reason is the serious attention and priority being given to increasing the college attend-

ance rate of disadvantaged minority groups, all of whom have been underrepresented in college populations (Crossland 1970; Gordon & Wilkerson 1966).

Most of the new educational resources provided to cope with both of these conditions have been in urban areas. It follows that urban high schools, community colleges, and universities must take the lead in applying their professional expertise in order to utilize the new educational opportunities to their fullest advantage. The urban university, in particular, must set the trend, as it generally has the greatest resources and expertise. This is especially true for psychological services, as university counselors are generally permitted greater freedom and time to devote their energies to psychological counseling.

The counseling department at the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle has for the past several years been concerned with improving its articulation with high school and community college departments. Initial efforts were somewhat random and not very well integrated. There were occasional workshops or lectures, visits between institutions, and telephone calls and correspondence. When universitywide recognition of the need for better interinstitutional communication and cooperation created a positive climate for school and college relations activities, the counseling department took the opportunity to augment the general program by committing itself to participation on an expanded level.

THE PROGRAM

A program was developed to capitalize on two unique potentials for articulation inherent in the urban environment. First, there is the relative ease of communication and transportation afforded by the city. Second, the city offers a wide range of diverse resources that can be easily used. These strengths were combined in a program in which high school and community college counselors were hired to work in the university counseling service during the summer months. These summer counselors were placed, insofar as possible, in positions suited to their interests and expertise. They were subject to the same type and degree of supervision and orientation as were regular members of the university counseling department. In general, the summer staff performed four functions.

1. They conducted interviews, both singly and in groups, with new students. The interviews were primarily concerned with interpretations and discussions of a full battery of academic and nonintelligence testing that had been completed by the students prior to the interview. The summer counselors also dealt with a wide variety of personal and general concerns not directly related to the testing program. In essence, the school or community college counselor now sat on the other end of the transition situation and viewed the needs, aspirations, and concerns of the incoming student through a new perspective. In a very real sense, the high school or community college counselor first did his exit interview with the high school or community college graduate, left him, ran over to the university, sat behind a new desk, and assumed the role of a university counselor for the same student, helping him to enter a new academic situation.

2. In a series of staff meetings, the summer counselors shared their concerns with our own staff. They made us aware of the problems facing the administration of a counseling service in a high school and

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a community college. They described their work loads and case loads, their differing views of counseling, and, all too often, their inability, because of administrative work loads, to do what is commonly known as "personal" counseling. An interesting sidelight was their descriptions of the type of recruiting that was going on by local and more distant colleges and universities. We learned of varying levels of requirements, financial aid packages, athletic recruitments, and anecdotes that helped us understand the general climate of the current college recruitment situation.

3. The summer counselors participated in the general counseling activities of our student counseling service. We function on a 12-month basis, since there is a large summer school population. Both regular and summer counselors attended staff meetings together, held case conferences together, saw incoming clients, and handled special cases, which included such things as providing special service arrangements for physically handicapped students and making referrals to community agencies that could be of service to particular students.

4. Mutual supervision was an important feature of the program. While university staff supervised such activities as psychological counseling procedures, high school and community college personnel supervised the mutual exploration of formal and informal community resources for students, as they proved much more knowledgeable in that area.

As concern increased for the poor college attendance rate and academic performance of the minority group populations living right on the university's doorstep, we decided that special efforts should be directed at improving relations with counselors in schools serving these students. These counselors were unfamiliar with our institution and harbored many misconceptions about it. By the same token, we were equally uninformed and unskilled in dealing with their clients. Therefore, for the second year of this program, we decided to hire the majority of our temporary summer staff from institutions in disadvantaged areas.

These counselors had many views that differed from those held by members of our staff. A careful period of adjustment was necessary. The two following examples are indicative of the type of interaction that emerged.

• One of the high school counselors insisted that our testing procedure was inappropriate for inner-city high school students (and well it may be). As a consequence of this, he was invited to assess our testing service for the two-month period and asked to make evaluations, judgments, and suggestions for altering the procedures. Serious discussions were held at the end of the summer about his findings, and efforts are under way to put some of his suggestions into practice.

• A community college counselor expressed the view that the personal counseling that was the main activity of university staff members was inappropriate to the school or community college situation. He saw the counselor's role at these levels as completely action oriented and informational. He was therefore asked to spend the summer working closely with a university counseling psychologist in providing individual counseling to students. He learned that there were ways to implement personal counseling usefully, even in the rather hectic milieu in which he worked. It was such sharings of insights, techniques, and viewpoints that were of greatest value.

When viewed from a broader perspective, there were benefits to both groups of counselors that were less obvious but

just as important to improving student services at all levels, which was, after all, the raison d'être for the program. Once they got over the initial shock, the university counselors were both impressed and distressed by the heavy work load and large number of clerical and other maintenance functions that high school and community college counselors had. While some university counselors saw this as a condition that precluded useful cooperation among the two groups of counselors, others saw it as a meaningful challenge. They gained new insight and understanding about the adaptations needed in the university's counseling services to compensate for deficiencies at lower level institutions. Equally important, they became more aware of how the university could best complement the services that did exist for deprived students at the lower level institutions.

For their part, the inner-city counselors learned many valuable things about the university that enabled them to be of greater service to their college-bound clients. They learned about the many hazards to student survival at the university and how to help students avoid them. They also found that they had grossly overestimated the university's student failure rate and the willingness and ability of the university to adapt to unique student needs. The criteria for admission were frankly discussed, with particular emphasis on how exceptions could be obtained and the chances of success in such cases. The summer staff also got to know a number of professors and administrators in the university through meetings designed for that purpose. The university became, for these several professionals at least, a human institution that could react to different human concerns.

CAUTIONS ABOUT COOPERATIVE PROGRAMS

These two experimental years taught us a good deal about the obstacles to devel-oping cooperative interlevel programs for improving counselor communication and understanding. We also learned that there are real limitations to what can be accomplished with such a program. A sure route to failure of such a cooperative enterprise is setting grandiose, unattainable goals and expectations for the participants. The biggest initial problem is overcoming a certain amount of hostility and defensiveness on the part of high school and community college counselors, which is usually matched by attitudes of professional superiority or false pride held by university personnel. The best cure is simply to allow for unstructured interaction in which each group gets to know the other on an informal, personal level. This should precede assignments and even commitments for participation. University counselors who feel that they are there to upgrade the skills of counselors from schools and two-year colleges constitute the chief potential for failure.

After a reasonable degree of mutual respect has been established, it is necessary to define as precisely as possible the experiences that are available and to ensure that each participant, whether from the school, college, or university, can see them as relevant to the improvement of his professional service to students. The primary goal for all should be improving one's perspective on where a student has been (or is going) in order to allow for better service to the student at any end or rung of the educational ladder. This kind of program cannot produce immediate and dramatic changes in the nature of guidance services at any of the levels involved. What it can do is enlarge the counselor's scope of useful information, help him acquire more balanced, useful attitudes about the nature of the transition process, and provide him with some new techniques, perspectives, and human contacts that will make for better articulation among educational institutions. ∎

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A Career Newsletter

MARTI MOORE

Sometime early in the summer of 1971, during a brainstorming session on ways to give students career planning information in easy-to-use form when they needed it—i.e., *before* their graduation day visit to the placement service—someone suggested a newsletter.

Nobody seemed to know quite what that meant—how a newsletter would be distributed or accepted, or even where we would find the money to pay for it. Still, the idea sounded appealing, and with the dearth of viable career programs, it seemed worth a try. So it was that, with no visible models and no budget, in July of 1971 we launched the "Career Planning News."

The first concern to deal with, of course, was format, and this was tackled by the university's competent News and Publications Department. After a few questions about purpose, audience, etc., they produced layouts, mastheads, and everything else that such a publication requires.

So much for those details. Now to content. We decided to combine "covering the waterfront," that is, broadly covering the whole spectrum of career models,

with indepth looks into specific careers. We tried to be as realistic and honest as possible; when we felt that a specific academic major or career area held very little promise for the future, we would say so. We also decided to pay particular attention to the career problems of ethnic minorities and women and also to concern ourselves with the small minority of students who are turned off by the whole idea of an establishment-type career.
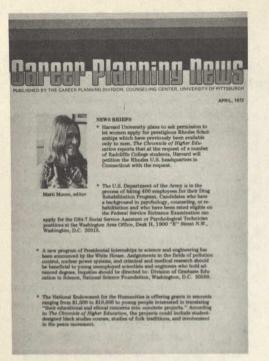
By this time we had a cost estimate of around $600 for 12,000 copies of an eight-page magazine-type newsletter printed on high quality recycled paper, and our dean gave us the go-ahead to do at least one issue.

Because mailing costs were prohibitive, we decided to use the same distribution methods as the campus newspaper—laying out piles of the publication at various pick-up points around campus. We also compiled a mailing list of people outside our university who we believed would have special interest in such a newsletter.

With regard to content, we decided to start with a series of "news briefs"—short items gleaned from the news media, the *Chronicle of Higher Education,* government reports, etc. Then we moved on to an indepth article on the future of employment in education, other articles on areas of graduate study, the availability of graduate fellowships, and the like.

The column about which we had the most doubts turned out in the long run to be the most popular. This was "Ca-

MARTI MOORE is Career Information Specialist, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

Career Planning News

APRIL, 1972

NEWS BRIEFS

* Harvard University plans to ask permission to let women apply for prestigious Rhodes Scholarships which have previously been available only to men. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* reports that at the request of a number of Radcliffe College students, Harvard will petition the Rhodes U.S. headquarters in Connecticut with the request.

Marti Moore, editor

* The U.S. Department of the Army is in the process of hiring 400 employees for their Drug Rehabilitation Program. Candidates who have a background in psychology, counseling, or rehabilitation and who have been rated eligible on the Federal Service Entrance Examination can apply for the GS4-7 Social Service Assistant or Psychological Technician positions at the Washington Area Office, Desk H, 1900 "E" Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20515.

* A new program of Presidential Internships in science and engineering has been announced by the White House. Assignments in the fields of pollution control, nuclear power systems, and criminal and medical research should be beneficial to young unemployed scientists and engineers who hold advanced degrees. Inquiries should be directed to: Division of Graduate Education in Science, National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C. 20550.

* The National Endowment for the Humanities is offering grants in amounts ranging from $1,000 to $10,000 to young people interested in translating "their educational and ethical concerns into concrete projects." According to *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, the projects could include student-designed black studies courses, studies of folk traditions, and involvement in the peace movement.

reers for Social Change," a listing of low-paying jobs in educational, social welfare, and various antiestablishment organizations throughout the country. We compiled the list from various national social service and antiestablishment publications, giving them credit wherever relevant. To everyone's amazement, the column proved so popular that the editor of our engineering school magazine asked for help in starting a similar column.

Where success of a publication cannot be measured in terms of dollars and cents, of advertising inches sold, or of new subscribers, more subjective means must be substituted for judging it. Comments from administrators of both our own university and other schools were uniformly congratulatory, and we heard from several of the latter the sincere compliment, "You have inspired us to try our own publication." Recruiters visiting the nearby placement service offices said, "I wish more colleges would do something like this."

But the students were our ultimate judges, and our success was confirmed by their enthusiasm, expressed in such comments as, "I hadn't been thinking about careers, but the newsletter really got me interested in . . ." or "I never even knew I could get career counseling here until I saw the newsletter."

On the basis of such success, funds were allocated for two more issues for the 1971–72 year, and the publication that started life with such uncertainty is alive, very well, and has entered its second year of life. ∎

Etcetera

Daniel Sinick
George Washington University

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

Cumulative Record by B. F. Skinner. Third edition. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 440 Park Ave. South, New York 10016. 1972. 604 pp. $12.95.

This "Selection of Papers" includes 48 in all, 18 being new to this edition. They range widely, Skinner having long been reinforced, it seems, for playing expert in varied fields. Would you believe "The Alliteration in Shakespeare's Sonnets: A Study in Literary Behavior"? He writes off all creativity to contingencies of reinforcement, together with compassion and ethical behavior. His own writing, exemplifying excellent literary behavior, is both clear exposition and clever entertainment. Too bad he cannot be given credit for it, instead of his "genetic and personal histories." Did his initials force him Beyond Freedom?

The Professional Woman edited by Athena Theodore. Schenkman Publishing Co., Inc., Cambridge, Massachusetts. Distributed by General Learning Press, 250 James St., Morristown, New Jersey 07960. 1971. 769 pp. $12.50 hardbound, $5.95 paperback.

This thick tome contains 53 readings, most of them previously published, several not, including the editor's long introductory chapter. Numerous aspects of the topic are touched on, mainly on the basis of research findings. Though the oldest profession is untouched, some chapters exhibit a light touch, e.g., "Farmer's Daughter Effect: The Case of the Negro Female Professionals," "The Clash between Beautiful Women and Science," and "Do 'Bad Girls' Become Good Nurses?" The

epigraph is by Julia Ward Howe: "The professions indeed supply the keystone to the arch of woman's liberty." Is women's lib getting a rise out of fallen arches?

Do the Poor Want to Work? by Leonard Goodwin. The Brookings Institution, 1775 Massachusetts Ave., Washington, D.C. 20036. 1972. 178 pp. $2.50.

Subtitled "A Social-Psychological Study of Work Orientations," this careful research report considered attitudes, goals, beliefs, and intentions as components of orientations toward work. The study compared welfare and nonwelfare mothers, sons, and fathers and examined differences related to race, socioeconomic status, and experiences in the work force. Major conclusion: "The plight of the poor cannot be blamed on their having deviant goals or a deviant psychology. The ways in which the poor do differ from the affluent can reasonably be attributed to their different experiences of success and failure in the world." Goodwin has combined good work and good works.

The Prison of Unemployment: Manpower Programs for Offenders by Robert Taggart III. The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, Maryland 21218. 1972. 116 pp. $6.00 hardbound, $2.50 paperback.

Calling them "the hardest core," Taggart tells the sad tale of offenders and ex-offenders. Whether probationers, prisoners, or parolees, these disadvantaged (non)members of society find it hard to join the advantaged. (Have you thought of yourself as advantaged? That's a start in understanding the disadvantaged.) Be they ill starred, inwardly scarred, or running scared, they are also outwardly barred. Jobs are hard to get, even with a soul ready to be sold. Taggart's taut analysis of training and work in prison, work release and post-release services, and problems in job placement leaves little place for optimism, but

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Some of the best college freshmen are veterans.

Not every young man is ready to take full advantage of college right out of high school. Some make far better freshmen at 21 than they would have at 18.

Some need a break from the traditional pressures of grades and standing in class. Time to learn more about themselves and about others. About what they want to do with their lives.

Today's Army offers them this time.

Time to train, travel, meet people, learn a skill, handle responsibility, mature. Time to learn the value of a steady job with a good salary. $307.20 a month to start. A salary that goes a long way when you consider meals, housing, clothing, medical and dental care are all free.

There's also the opportunity to begin college while still in the Army. With the Army paying at least 75% of the tuition. Then, for the young man who successfully completes a three-year enlistment, there's 36 months of financial assistance at the college of his choice.

Today's Army wants to join you.

he closes with concrete suggestions for positive action.

Yellow Pages of Learning Resources edited by Richard Saul Wurman. Group for Environmental Education, 1214 Arch St., Philadelphia 19107. 1972. 94 pp. $1.95.

In telephone book format, these yellow pages are not cowardly, but courageously conduct inquisitive sallies into communities to spur readers to "let your feet do the walking." Though "only a handshake with a city," this spirited introduction to what can be learned in large and small towns lists 71 information sources. Alphabetically arranged from Accountant to Zoo, they consist of people, places, and processes (e.g., Weather Forecasting). Included are Child, Corner, Garbage Man, Helicopter, Junk Yard, Next-Door Neighbor, and even Tree Stump and Vacant Lot. Systematically suggesting specific questions to ask and supplying samples of information gained, the book is yet infused with a sense of joy.

Climate for Creativity edited by Calvin W. Taylor. Pergamon Press, Inc., Maxwell House, Fairview Park, Elmsford, New York 10523. 1972. 304 pp. $14.50.

A "Report of the Seventh National Research Conference on Creativity," these expensive proceedings provide extensive coverage of a much-needed emphasis. As Barron comments about "people who have done something that has truly reshaped the world, nearly all of them have gotten outside of existing organizations to do so." Other conferees committed to creative climates included Guilford, Maslow, Roe, and Torrance. While Maslow makes the old point about perspiration plus inspiration, some papers present new ideas in innovative ways. One paper is called "Travels in Search of New Latitudes for Innovation." Another's subtitle is "Necessity Has Too Often and for Too Long Been the Mother of Invention"; this writer refreshingly stresses identification of "unfelt needs."

This Way Out by John Coyne and Tom Hebert. E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 201 Park Ave. South, New York 10003. 1972. 468 pp. $10.00 hardbound, $4.95 paperback.

Less than subtle, here's the subtitle: "A Guide to Alternatives to Traditional College Education in the United States, Europe and the Third World." About equal space is devoted to each of three alternatives: independent study, experimental colleges, and foreign study. Doing your own thing educationally is given detailed attention, innovative schools are treated informatively, and study abroad draws largely on the authors' overseas experiences. Pied pipers, their title and content are intended to lure students off the beaten path.

Good Schools by H. P. Schoenheimer. Behavioral Publications, Inc., 2852 Broadway, New York 10025. 1972. 128 pp. $9.95 hardbound, $4.95 paperback.
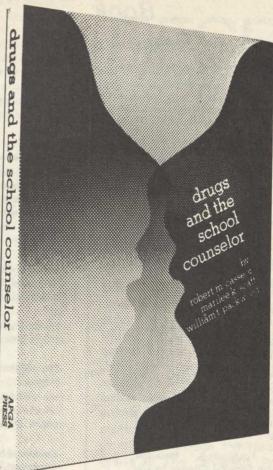
Educator and journalist, the acerbic author journeyed around the world in search—like a latter-day Diogenes—of honest, open, joyful schools. Acerbic? "Nobody who reads this book and then fails to do something to achieve such schools can claim to care about good education. Probably he went to a bad school in the first place." In deadly lively style he describes 17 schools in almost as many countries, with occasional comments on counseling and guidance. He enables the reader to visit distant schools without being "broadened" by travel.

Understanding and Counseling the Suicidal Person by Paul W. Pretzel. Abingdon Press, 201 Eighth Ave. South, Nashville, Tennessee 37202. 1972. 251 pp. $5.95.

Based in part on a ThD dissertation, this book draws from theology and philosophy as well as psychology and sociology and stresses the role of pastoral counselors. Only occasionally, however, does Pretzel get twisted into such emphases as the community's need "to respond with redeeming Christian love." (With Protestant and Catholic suicide rates higher, Jewish love may be more redeeming—or is it the chicken soup?) Pretzel's presentation, whether or not taken with salt, is a wholesome, comprehensive introduction to a troublesome, complex area of counseling. Highly analytical, he details specifics regarding prevention, survivor reactions, and even criteria for "the rational suicide."

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drugs and the school counselor

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APGA PRESS

Drugs and the School Counselor. 1972. By Robert M. Casse, Jr. Marilee K. Scaff and William T. Packwood. What are the issues involved in counseling the drug user? What are the implications of state and federal statutes on drug abuse for counselors? How can counselors aid in developing enlightened policies on drug use within their school systems as well as facilitating drug education programs in their communities? These and other questions are explored in this concise text which defines the responsibilities of counselors to their counselees and community. Case study, drug-abuse guides, counseling strategies. 148 pp. To APGA members $4; to non-members $5. (order #050).

Available from the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Publications Sales Dept., 1607 New Hampshire Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C. 20009. Please note that payment must accompany all orders except for those on official, institutional purchase order forms.

Also available from APGA is a 16mm, color film entitled **Help** and five cassette tapes dealing with drugs. For details, request your free copy of the APGA Multi-Media Store Catalog.

Book Reviews

Career Education: What It Is and How to Do It by Kenneth B. Hoyt and others. Salt Lake City, Utah: Olympus Publishing Company, 1972. 190 pp. $5.95 hardbound, $4.00 paperback.

This book is essentially an enlarged briefing paper—lucid, succinct, and action oriented. It is aimed at school officials and lay audiences interested in knowing (a) what the key concepts of career education are, (b) why career education is needed, (c) how it can be implemented in practice, and (d) what the appropriate implementation strategies are for a school system interested in the concept.

The concept of career education provided by the authors indicates why it is receiving wide support: ". . . all types of educational experiences, curriculum instruction, and counseling should involve preparation for economic independence, personal fulfillment, and an appreciation for the dignity of work. It seeks to give meaning to all education by relating its content to the job world. Under career education every student (young woman or young man) should leave the school system with a saleable skill. . . ."

The authors do not view career education as merely another name for an enlargement of vocational education. Rather they conceive it as a cement that binds vocational education and the educational system to the community. They develop the need for career education in the context of the dismal performance to date of our educational system—including vocational counseling—in preparing young people for the working

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world. The authors review and elaborate on (a) the many changes that must occur before career education can become a reality—changes in curriculum, in teacher training, in skill training, in the role of the home and the family, and (b) the necessity for contributions of employers, employees, and labor organizations. Finally, the book provides practical action steps for the implementation of career education.

Those who do not accept the work ethic as a primary value today will find this monograph dogmatic, irritating, and possibly corrupting in its emphasis on career education as a primary goal for the educational system, despite the caveats of the authors that education for living is as important as education for making a living. Others will condemn it for making career education seem like a new panacea to solve the problem of skilled labor shortages and to overcome poverty and disadvantage—again, despite the insistence of the authors that career education is for everyone, including the college-bound and adults, and is not to be used politically to control and manipulate.

Counselors will find the book anxiety provoking because they too will be held accountable for an individual's employability and satisfaction with his career choice. In fact, if education becomes saturated with career orientation, it is hard to see the need for most counselors as they function today.— *Sidney A. Fine, W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, Washington, D.C.*

Human Resources and Labor Markets—Labor and Manpower in the American Economy by Sar A. Levitan, Garth L. Mangum, and Ray Marshall. New York: Harper & Row, 1972. 640 pp. $12.95.

This book should be on every counselor's bookshelf. Human resources development deals necessarily with a broad range of subjects, and its study requires an understanding in depth of the changes that are transforming both our economy and our way of life.

The reader is given an encompassing overview of manpower and labor, past and present, in theory and in actuality. Included are forecasts and ideas for future developments, and reviewed in detail are federal and state manpower programs such as the Manpower Training and Development Act (MDTA), the Job Corps, the Neighborhood Youth Corps

(NYC), Operation Mainstream, New Careers, NAB-JOBS (with the National Alliance for Businessmen), Aid to Families of Dependent Children (AFDC), and welfare activities. The delivery of these manpower services and the changing role of the public employment service indicate new thrusts of our expanding technological society. A special section is devoted to minority income and employment, with particular attention given to black, Chicano, and Indian populations, including methods being used to combat discrimination.

The 29 chapters comprising this book are not even in quality or length. In my judgment, the weakest is chapter 8, entitled "Counseling and Guidance for Occupational Choice." Reference is made to few of the latest developments in the field. All chapters are lacking in the most recent selective bibliography possible; in some chapters there is an obvious lack of needed references. In chapter 19, for example, there is one note and no bibliography.

At times the book is simplistic, answers and opinions being given without reference to particular research to back them up. Sentences such as the following really jarred me. In discussing the vocational rehabilitation model, the authors state, "The key element of the program is a personal relationship between a handicapped client and a trained counselor equipped, as it were, with a blank checkbook to purchase whatever medical, educational, or other services are needed to successfully place the client in satisfactory employment." Where did they ever get this information?

On the other hand, there are literally hundreds of places throughout the text where exceedingly important facts are well documented and the information is of particular interest and help to counselors.

This timely book is a gold mine of information on labor and manpower in the American economy. It can be of particular use to those in counseling and selective placement. —S. Norman Feingold, B'nai B'rith Career and Counseling Services, Washington, D.C.

Counseling: Theory and Process by James C. Hansen, Richard R. Stevic, and Richard W. Warner, Jr. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1972. 392 pp. $9.50.

This is an ambitious book. It presents theories of counseling in the first half and the practice of counseling in the second. The first half is an echo of Patterson or Stefflre, the second an echo of Brammer and Shostrom or Tyler. I say "echo" deliberately. Although it is evident that the authors took their task seriously—to provide a base from which the aspiring counselor can build his own theory to guide his practice—I can't see that they have succeeded.

Much of the first half looks like it was written in the 1950's. The difference between counseling and psychotherapy is discussed at length; continuums are introduced to contrast concepts and theories. There is a core of three chapters, one each on Freud, Rogers, and learning theory. Freud's chapter has excursions into ego-counseling and Adler; none of Carkhuff's or Gendlin's elaboration of Rogers is given.

The second half of the book is standard fare. There are chapters on the initial interview, the relationship, diagnosis, testing, vocational counseling, etc. They read like a series of abstracts from the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL and the *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, with an occasional observation by the authors, none particularly relevant to the theory section of the book. One transcript from a series of interviews with a high schooler reveals a counselor of 1950 Rogerian vintage, at times so inarticulate as to be embarrassing. And there are significant omissions. Blocher is not mentioned, even when a developmental concept is introduced into the definition of counseling. Goldman does not appear in the chapter on testing.

And one final irritation: References in the text are in APA style, by year, while the form of the bibliography is some other style, omitting the year altogether.

How any aspiring counselor could put this book to better use than the standard texts so frequently cited by the authors, I just can't see.—*Donald G. Zytowski, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.*

Behavior Modification Procedures for School Personnel by Beth Sulzer and G. Roy Mayer. Hinsdale, Illinois: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1972. 316 pp. $4.95.

Counselors and teachers appear to be increasingly interested in using behavior modification techniques with problem children. This Sulzer and Mayer book is one more in a line of good texts describing the basic procedures for changing behavior. The foreword pre-

sents an excellent argument for the application of operant principles and is worth reading whether or not the entire book is read.

Some weak arguments and troublesome examples are presented in connection with several concepts and procedures. At one point the authors discuss whether it is fair to use primary reinforcers with one child in a classroom and not with the others; this is an example of the more general problem of maintaining the behavior of other individuals in a setting while a procedure is applied to a specific individual. The authors could have dealt with this problem by suggesting that a part of any individual behavior change program is an analysis of the reinforcers and schedules by which ongoing behavior of others in the same setting is maintained.

The authors point out that behavior modifiers should determine how their own behavior will be maintained during the course of a program. A good point, but they don't discuss it. Later they do point out that behavior specialists can do things to maintain others who carry out programs. This topic suggests roles for consultants vis-à-vis their consultees. School counselors might be intrigued with the suggestions.

Counselors and teachers would benefit most from the text if they would perform the suggested exercises faithfully and keep systematic records while doing so. The exercises are designed to help people become familiar with the procedures in an operational sense. People with extensive experience in behavior modification will find the text redundant. But then, it wasn't written for them.—*Jay M. Toews, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.*

The Two-Career Family by Lynn Lythe Holmstrom. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Co., Inc., 1972. 203 pp. $5.95 hardbound, $3.95 paperback.

The Two-Career Family, a welcome addition to the women's study literature, investigates the viability of the two-career family. The material of this book draws on contrasting information received from personal interviews with one- and two-career family couples.

The book seems to center around two themes: (a) the issues associated with working career mothers and (b) the factors in the occupational world that militate against the model of the career mother. On the former theme, the author investigated such factors

"It is time for the counseling profession to develop an appropriate career ladder."

"Perceptions of the school counselor's role are varied and the demands made of him are great. . . . Typically, counselors are overburdened with administrative policies and paper work at the expense of the more important professional duties they perform with children, with youth and adults, and with teachers and parents. . . ."

The problem of *Support Personnel in School Guidance Programs* is one which concerns many school systems and guidance programs. "The school counselor is urged to give very careful consideration to this monograph. He should implement the suggestions, and should discuss the potential of support personnel in a guidance program with his principal and his district superintendent."

SUPPORT PERSONNEL IN SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

Monograph No. 2 in the APGA Guidance and Counseling Series. By David Zimpfer, Ronald Fredrickson, Mitchell Salim, and Alpheus Sanford. Available for $3.50 per copy. Order from APGA Publications Sales Dept., 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Payment must accompany all orders except for those on official, institutional purchase order forms.

as wife's attitude toward a career; husband's attitude regarding wife's career; and couples' attitudes toward a host of subjects such as household tasks, child-rearing duties, scheduling problems, social life, wife's professional travel, and allotment of family's time, money, and resources. The second theme of the book deals with the factors that generally work to exclude married women from careers, such as inflexibility of work schedules, the lack of status of part-time workers, problems of geographic mobility, the lack of collective child care centers, and the general isolation of the American nuclear family from their extended family.

The author found that the primary difference between one- and two-career families was the attitude of the husband in promoting the career interests of his wife. In almost all cases the husbands of two-career couples were more willing to consider their wives' career interests in choosing a place of residence and more willing to share household and child-rearing duties than were husbands in one-career families. Nevertheless, the careers of the women in two-career families, the author found, were almost always dependent on or subordinate to the careers of their husbands.

In the last chapters of the book the author presents some suggestions for increasing women's participation in the work world. She believes that women will begin to participate fully in the occupational world only when and if the occupational world fully attempts to integrate the needs and demands of the career-minded mother into its structure. She also feels that unless society alters traditional roles of the sexes by interchanging some aspects of the male-female roles, women's roles will still be relegated by necessity to maternity and second-rate careers by virtue of their restricted career patterns.

I think the book is valuable reading for women's studies classes, career development classes, and counselors, since it somewhat negates the position of such women's groups as NOW, who contend that all that women need are equal opportunities and equal employment in work. It should be particularly interesting for those who doubt that the two-career family model is a rocky road to travel. —*Mary A. Julius Guttman, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto (Ontario), Canada.*

Psychology of Women—A Study in Bio-Cultural Conflicts by Judith M. Bardwick. New York: Harper & Row, 1971. 242 pp. $7.95.

What does it mean to be a woman? One important answer to this question comes from Judy Bardwick, an associate professor of psychology at the University of Michigan. Bardwick is married to a nuclear physicist, has three children, and calls herself a "demi-feminist": to her, family and affiliative concerns are uppermost, but she also enjoys the involvement that comes from her career.

Bardwick believes that there is a relationship between female physiology and female psychology and that some of the differences between the sexes are genetic in origin. She believes that an individual's sexual identity is not determined by biological factors alone, however, but by the interaction of biological forces with cultural values and norms. Five of the twelve chapters in *Psychology of Women* are devoted to an examination of the evidence for biological influences in female psychology. The evidence, she admits, is not conclusive, and she points out the difficulties involved in attempting to design research that will generate data relevant to these considerations.

Bardwick has found that a girl's self-esteem is usually based not on her personal achievement but on her sense of acceptance as a person and that, because of the strength of affiliative motivations, the establishment of marriage is the most important developmental task a young woman faces. In fact, Bardwick states, she regards women who are not motivated to achieve the affiliative role with husband and children as not normal, and she speaks of the profound emotions associated with childbirth and early maternity. "Having a child," she says, "means that you have created a human being." She indicates, however, that achievement motivations for women may emerge later in life, after the needs for affiliation have been satisfied.

Four chapters of the book discuss male and female differences in such traits as dependency, passivity, aggression, identification, self-esteem, and the motive to succeed. Bardwick does not deny traditional concepts of femininity but rather finds that the female experience is far richer and more complex than we may have imagined.

This book is must reading for all who counsel women. It is controversial, to be sure, and the issues it raises are likely to be debated for some time. However, before we carelessly discard sex roles as some sort of quaint relic from an unenlightened past, let us give thoughtful consideration to Bardwick's contention that there are significant biological and psychological differences between men and women.—*Dorothy W. Petry, White Bear Senior High School, White Bear Lake, Minnesota.*

Groups: Facilitating Individual Growth and Societal Change by Walter M. Lifton. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1972. 356 pp. $8.95.

Although Lifton refers to this volume as a "new book," it clearly appears to be a revision of his earlier volume *Working with Groups*. While the format seems somewhat different, much of the effect is a result of his shifting topics around among chapters; for example, parts of chapter 2 of the original version have been incorporated into chapter 1, and the contents of chapters 6 and 7 are

now in chapter 7 of the revised volume. Only chapter 6, "The Real World—A Changing Society," constitutes a clean break with the contents of the earlier volume.

The book is intended to offer some immediate, practical assistance to the beginning group leader and help him recognize his need for further professional training. The volume may succeed to some degree in both of these objectives. Considerable content is dedicated to techniques and typescripts of group sessions, and there is a useful section on leadership standards and ethics.

The author stresses the impact philosophy has on practice in a chapter devoted to the interdependence of theory and action. His point of view is quite clearly related to Rogers' humanistic existentialism. He discusses the assets and liabilities of sensitivity groups, encounter groups, and confrontation groups and emphasizes the contribution of growth groups to the maintenance of a democratic society.

One chapter is dedicated to the counselor as a potential social activitist in the urban setting. The author recounts his own experiences while working with militant groups and offers a thoughtful analysis of the issues. He concludes his discussion of student power groups with three pages of excellent suggestions for school administrators who wish to prevent student upheavals. He quotes lengthily from the Department of the Army's field manual on civil disturbances and disasters in his discussion of the disruptive group techniques of agitators.

One of the most helpful features is a 56-page bibliography of recent publications on group procedures in guidance compiled by David Zimpfer. This bibliography should prove to be of great assistance to students wishing to research topics in group work.

My students seldom demonstrate enthusiasm for group work literature, and I doubt seriously that Lifton's volume will significantly change their opinions. For my part, I plan to continue to select chapters from several publications in order to provide a proper reading diet for my students.—*Kenneth B. Matheny, Georgia State University, Atlanta.*

Forensic Psychology in Disability Adjudication: A Decade of Experience—Vocational Experts in the Bureau of Hearings and Appeals edited by Robert B. Hannings, Philip Ash, and Daniel Sinick. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1972. DHEW Publication No. (SSA) 72-10284. 141 pp.

Forensic Psychology in Disability Adjudication: A Decade of Experience is a misleading title for a volume of articles dealing primarily with the role of the Vocational Expert, a role restricted to matching physical traits with available jobs, and one that minimally reflects the function of psychology in the courts. Through apparently original articles prepared by experienced participants in the Social Security Administration's Bureau of Hearings and Appeals, the background, present status, and future prospects of the program are described and discussed, with the main focus on the Vocational Expert role.

The Vocational Expert undoubtedly makes a valuable contribution to disability adjudication, but the authors' discussions of their responsibilities are overly subjective and place a disproportionate amount of emphasis on the benefits accrued from their experience. Testimonials of Vocational Experts who extol their personal experience because of the positive transfer to their full-time jobs are not conducive to an objective and thorough treatment of the subject matter. The book also has an overbalance of the descriptive mechanics of the Vocational Expert role, giving minimal attention to the more substantive professional and theoretical issues.

In spite of its shortcomings, the book does contain adequate summaries on the progress of disability adjudication during the last 10 years, and the evaluation of the legislative and judicial aspects of the system is concise and enlightening. More careful editing, however, could have prevented unnecessary repetition of the same historical events in different articles. In addition to the main text of the articles, inclusions such as vocational survey forms, actual hearings transcripts, and charts plotting the frequency of expert usage and hearing requests can be found. Finally, the appendix contains other informative and practical aids that outline the legal procedures and give samples of the contracts offered to physicians and Vocational Experts.

Taken as a whole, the volume has value, as it offers the public a rare view of the bureaucratic machinery affecting a sizable portion of the population. It is recommended to anyone interested in the Social Security Disability Program and, of course, to pros-

pective Experts.—*Sheldon A. Grand, SUNY at Albany.*

The Interview: Research on Its Anatomy and Structure by Joseph D. Matarazzo and Arthur N. Wiens. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton, Inc., 1972. 183 pp. $9.75.

The purpose of this book is to summarize the massive research that the authors and their colleagues have conducted on the interview and related communication interactions. This goal is achieved and makes the book necessary reading for researchers in the field. On the other hand, the book's cumbersome style will have little appeal for practitioners and counselor educators. I struggled through it as I would through a review of the literature in a doctoral dissertation. I found it easy to become mired in the too-lengthy expositions of methodological procedures and to become frustrated because relevant implications for counseling were too few and far between.

At one point I felt there was an overvaluing of the mechanics of the research approach used, such as the simplistic measurement of speech variables. This is due to the authors' "conviction . . . that objective indexes such as the utterance duration variable . . . offer a more promising approach to diagnostic classification and the corollary understanding of important personality differences among individuals than has been offered by the traditional psychiatric-psychological approaches. . . ." It is one thing to say that this is a useful approach and quite another to state that it is "more promising." The authors go well beyond what their data suggests.

Several methodological questions arise. For example, many of the studies cited have very small N's. Further, the authors make no distinctions in any of their studies between effective and ineffective therapists. Therapist styles are poorly defined and vague; e.g., "non-directive" interviewers make general, reflective, summarizing, or open-ended statements. The chapters do need integrative summarizations to highlight fruitful implications for practice.

On the other hand, there are several interesting findings. The relationship of therapist-counselee speech variables—and speech modification possibilities—should be noted by educators. The following should be under-

scored: (a) client "set" as to whether the therapist will be warm or cold in a forthcoming interview affects client behavior; (b) client speech style can be indicative of current mood states; (c) head nods and saying "mm-hmm" *do* increase utterance durations; (d) therapist interruptions do foster client interruptions, but they may also be interpreted as a display of counselor involvement; (e) therapist speech can be modified; and (f) there is a relationship of speech measures to counseling process variables.

It is unfortunate that the major findings of this book could not be presented in shortened form, such as in a journal article, and thus have greater impact on practicing counselors and counselor educators.—*John J. Pietrofesa, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.*

Youth: Myths and Realities by Richard R. Stevic and Robert H. Rossberg. Columbus, Ohio: Charles D. Merrill Publishing Co., 1972. 148 pp. $2.95 paperback.

There is so much that is right in this volume that what is not quite right is prominent by

contrast. That there are portions of its contents that are not quite right I put down to the book's brevity. Given the volume's eight potentially comprehensive topics, treated in fewer than 140 pages of text, a chapter to each topic, it should not be surprising if the judgment of "not quite right" falls on some of the contents.

That which is right, however, is pronouncedly so. The treatments Stevic and Rossberg give to the title topics in the chapters "Alienation and Anguish" and "The Adolescent and the Educational Experience" are examples of sound analysis, sensitivity to the adolescent state, and literary facility, despite their brevity.

The variety of the authors' intended audience might be a factor contributing to the negative portion of my ambivalence. Addressed to many, this brief book seeks to cover too much within its limited length. There is a chapter "Counseling Adolescents," which is forced to say too much by saying too little, as is the chapter "Organization of Guidance." Were it addressed primarily or solely to parents, one of their stated classes of readers, there could have been a more pronounced focus. They are writing, however, for undergraduate and graduate students interested in the adolescent culture, for teachers, counselors, administrators, and "various publics of the school," such as parents.

And the title. Wouldn't you expect a recital of erroneous beliefs about youth, with the countering facts? But there are no myths recorded. Some good realities well stated, but no myths.

After all that, what does the scale show in balance? Is this a book for any audience? It is certainly for graduate students in guidance who have not studied about adolescents as undergraduates and whose graduate programs do not include a course in adolescence. It is also for parents who have a better than average reading level, particularly those enrolled in study groups sponsored by schools, churches, and other institutions; for those who have studied adolescence in depth and wish a quick review plus some new ideas; and for those about to undertake a course in adolescent psychology, as the book will give them an overview of the area. The authors write so well that I wish they had written at greater length.—*Richard Hill Byrne, University of Maryland, College Park.*

The Illusion of Equality by Murray Milner, Jr. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1972. 172 pp. $8.50.

This book, which sometimes approaches being a polemic, essentially argues that steps other than expanding educational opportunities—steps undoubtedly more difficult to achieve—are needed if the goal held by many of an egalitarian society is to be achieved. Although he does not believe that complete economic equality can be achieved or that this necessarily provides a desirable goal, Milner accepts as a goal the reduction of the economic and social inequality that today prevails in our society, and he presents impressive statistics supporting his argument that a society in which such inequality prevails cannot long survive.

Milner argues that increasing educational opportunities mainly have the effect of moving the entire socioeconomic distribution upward but not reducing its range. In a sense, this is like the caption under a cartoon that shows a man and a woman drinking champagne. One of them is saying to the other, "Life is relentless: The middle class keeps catching up."

In presenting his argument the author makes several assumptions that might well be questioned, and he is not always perfectly straightforward in presenting statistics that might reject his thesis. He assumes that a person's perception of whether he is poor or wealthy depends on the comparisons he makes with his contemporaries. Ideas of poverty and wealth, however, are based also in the history of the individual's experiences, and he may consider himself wealthy because he has more advantages than did his childhood family, even though the relative place he holds in the economy may be similar to, or even lower than, that of his parents in theirs. In other words, the piece of pie acquired by each individual may be no larger than the piece obtained by every other person, but the pie itself may be larger, and all of the pieces may have increased in size, if not in nutritional value.

Discussions of racial inequality, Marxism, women's liberation, and social conflict are all well handled; particularly intriguing is the author's treatment of the question of why social conflict waxes and wanes in our society.

I recommend the book to counselors and

others in guidance and education and predict that readers will find in it many ideas for discussion and debate. As you read the book, you may be reminded of a little song from Gilbert and Sullivan's *The Gondoliers* that ends, "When everyone is somebodee, / Then no one's anybody!"—*Ralph Berdie, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

Education and the Rise of the Corporate State by Joel H. Spring. Boston: Beacon Press, 1972. 206 pp. $7.95.

Schools must go, we are told. So must vocational guidance to achieve "fit." Why? Two main reasons.

One, schools are geared to a bygone business and industrial world. Electronic media do a quicker, better, and cheaper job of shaping people to the new computer-directed, McLuhanatic scene. The slow, fragmented, authoritarian formation of useful robots through discursive communication and learning the rules of corporate life is replaced by TV's total massage, the instantaneous, holistic presentation of whatever one needs to know about. Motivation and understanding are no problem when "you are there" instead of being stuck with a book about it in a classroom far away. The leaders of our capitalist system can be expected to withdraw their traditional support from the costly irrelevancies the schools have become.

Two, neither vocational guidance nor schools ever served the basic public interest —namely, freedom—anyway. Such golden terms as *individual choice, adjustment, socialization, diversified curriculum,* and *individualized instruction* were hitched to the old requirements of the capitalist system: minutely specialized skills, obedience to command. The freedom described by them was the freedom to conform to those requirements—now made obsolete by automation and subliminal manipulation—for the greater good of the Corporate State. Ordinarily this is what is meant by enslavement, but when you are conditioned to feel good about having become a smoothly functioning robot, that is the feeling of freedom. Wrong, says Spring. Real freedom is not a feeling. It is action undertaken primarily to satisfy one's individual needs, to which the needs of a system should be subordinate, if allowed at all. He is thinking of the creation of limit-

less needs and of the goods and services that are "justified" thereby.

Spring's provocative writing may well induce a hunger for more substantial treatment of the problem of freedom and enslavement, as posed by B. F. Skinner and other admirers of smoothly functioning robots. The schools are still with us, enforcing the cultural determination of personality even in pupil personnel services.—*Gerard Hinrichs, DeBary, Florida.*

Emotional Intimacy—Overlooked Requirement for Survival by Alan M. Dahms. Boulder, Colorado: Shields Publishing Co., Inc., 1972. 154 pp. $5.95 hardbound, $3.95 paperback.

Emotional intimacy is like apple pie: each may be pleasant and contribute to good health; we have favorite recipes for each and evaluate others' recipes on the basis of our taste; what is well done to one may seem half-baked to another; and neither is easily dealt with in print.

Dahms' treatment of emotional intimacy is from a humanistic kitchen. His thesis is that

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Students at Hampton Institute, Va., a coed school, discuss their academic and social experiences at this predominantly black college. 16 minutes. 16mm, color and sound. Sale price $225; rental fee per day of use $25. **(order #C7)**

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Students and faculty at Trinity College, Washington, D. C., discuss the changing nature of Catholic colleges and the atmosphere of an all-girl school. 16 minutes. 16mm, color and sound. Sale price $225; rental fee per day of use $25. **(order #C8)**

A Private Junior College.

This film shows the heavy academic support and structured life for students at Mitchell Junior College, New London, Conn., a stepping stone to four-year colleges. 16 minutes. 16mm, color and sound. Sale price $225; rental fee per day of use $25. **(order #C9)**

A State University in the South.

Students report that it takes more independence and maturity to find a niche at Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, than at a small school. 16 minutes. 16mm, color and sound. Sale price $225; rental fee per day of use $25. **(order #C10)**

An "Emerging" University.

The University of Hartford, Hartford, Conn., has as its specialty innovative teaching methods, wherein students are encouraged to participate in curriculum planning. 16 minutes. 16mm, color and sound. Sale price $225; rental fee per day of use $25. **(order #C11)**

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Students at Davidson College, N.C., discuss the influence of an all-male institution on academic, athletic and social life. 16 minutes. 16mm, color and sound. Sale price $225; rental fee per day of use $25. **(order #C12)**

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At Florida Southern College, Lakeland, the influence of traditional Christian values is analyzed relative to student life and academic programs.

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It will accompany all sale or rental orders for the complete series. The appropriate section of the booklet will accompany individual rental or sale orders. The booklet describes the principal characteristics of each college as told by the students, includes notes on similar schools and provides discussion questions for use after viewing the films. Additional copies are available for $.75 each. **(order #C1)**

The College Selection Film Series was produced by Visual Education Corporation in association with the New York Times and is distributed by APGA.

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emotional intimacy is not only desirable and enriching but also necessary for individual and species survival. He takes support from a host of sources.

The book has three parts. The first suggests a conceptualization of intimacy; it is semitheoretical and occasionally pedantic. The second and third are clearly personal and more directed at stimulating affect than intellect. "Fables of Our Time" attempts to indicate causes and consequences of a lack of intimacy. "The Future Course" adumbrates a vision of a better world culminating in something called the "World Tribe."

Dahms' purpose is to make a personal statement, and the book should be evaluated as such. While not particularly thoughtful ("There is nothing new in this book"), it may be thought provoking. It will appeal to those with belief systems similar to Dahms'. All the proper gods are praised (life, freedom, understanding) and demons damned (sham, compulsion, callousness). Probably no one will be persuaded to engineer major changes of values, but perhaps some will risk a new behavior or two.

Two aspects of the book were especially disappointing. Frequent Sesame-Street-like sections ("Fables," for example) appear as attempts to be clever. More disappointing, however, is the injustice done the "straight" world. An apostle of understanding might show less inclination to resort to stereotypes. The points could be better made without painting "traditional" teachers, counselors, businessmen, clergymen, etc., with such a wide brush.—*Theodore J. Kaul, Ohio State University, Columbus.*

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Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything*, including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

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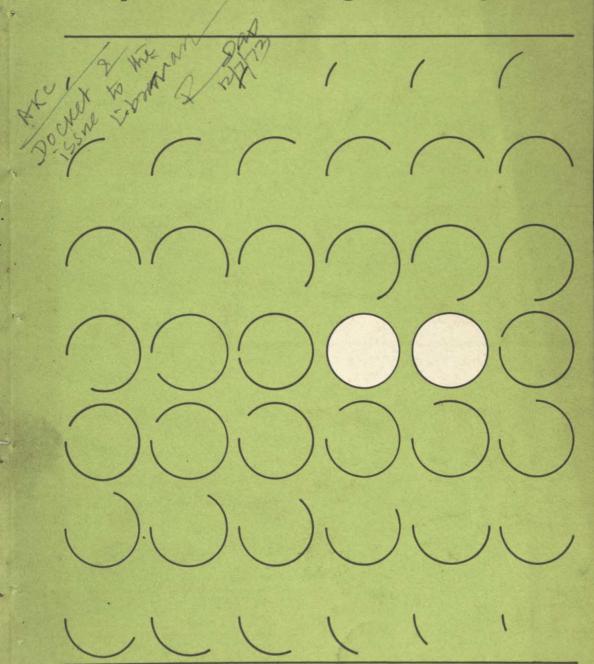
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ARTICLES

IN THE FIELD

POEMS

Feedback

Rationalizations

I was quite intrigued by Marvin Roth's article "Why I Like Gestalt Therapy, as a Hole" (January 1973). I was also intrigued by the author's rationalization for printing it: that we must beware of rationalizing our "manipulations" when positive change is not visible in a client.

Gestalt therapy was made to appear self-contradictory and unrealistic. This was accomplished not by using alternate theories or logic but by using satire and distortion of basic data—for instance, Perls' definition of growth in terms of moving from environmental support to self-support. Roth defined it in terms of inducing change. Gestalt therapists do not induce anything, nor do they necessarily desire change. The object of therapy is self-awareness. This may eventually lead to change, but it is not the immediate objective of the therapist.

Perhaps Mr. Roth would not have experienced the failures he had to "rationalize" had he bothered to understand the therapy before attempting to apply it.

I am surprised the JOURNAL, supposedly a professional publication, would publish such an obvious cheap shot.

JIM VAN ELDIK
Central Community Schools
Elkader, Iowa

The Special Feature Blend

Your experimentation has paid off handsomely. The December 1972 issue has achieved a balance that I found absorbing as well as professionally stimulating. The Special Issue idea reduced to the Special Feature enables you to present important current issues without sacrificing worthwhile academic, research, and field papers. In format, the best issue ever.

LESTER SCHWARTZ
Queens College of CUNY
Flushing, New York

Politics and Self-Assertion

Charles F. Warnath's article (P&G, December 1972) is not only a brilliant and insightful perception of the current professional status of counselors in an institutional setting, but it is also as clear a prophecy regarding the future state of the profession as has been placed before counselors in many years.

While Warnath's remarks are penetrating, I feel that he has missed one glaring point that hinders counselors from arching their backs and asserting themselves in the institutions in which they work. It is simply this: Counselors and the counseling profession are viewed by most institutions and faculties as being at the low end of the institutional totem pole. In some institutions counselors fight vigorously for full faculty rank and status and yet, when they attain it, meekly retreat to grumble among themselves about how the evaluation criteria for teaching faculty do not pertain to their duties in dealing with the "affective" or "personal" realm of the students. Others, hired on an administrative line, feel that their priorities are subservient to the priorities of others, such as the dean of administration or the dean of instruction. Upsetting these balances by "making waves" seems only self-defeating in terms of the professional recognition among academicians who, because of accomplishment and longevity, later become administrators. Essentially what happens is that counselors are too scared of their usually precarious positions, generally and locally, to stand united, thus causing an every-man-for-himself syndrome in many student services departments. Consequently, counselors come and go and become more disgruntled.

What seems to be in order when counselors' roles and integrity are seriously questioned or even threatened is simply a retort by the counselors that perhaps the institution might try to go without student affairs services (and therefore without student activities,

Air Force service: a vocational asset

DANIEL C. PERKINS, JR.

PAUL D. KNOKE

Dan Perkins is *Chief of Educational Affairs for the USAF Air Training Command, and was formerly an Associate Professor and Deputy Head of the Department of Life Sciences, United States Air Force Academy.* **Paul Knoke** *is a liaison officer for Educational Affairs and a former Academy Associate Professor of English.*

As APGA members well know, young people without college prospects often look at the service as a last resort. Understandably they are impatient to get out into the world on their own. They are even more afraid that military duty will drastically retard their chances of competitive success in the civilian job market. With the draft ending, four years in the Air Force may look particularly unappealing.

But that fear is misconceived. Far from a waste of time, Air Force service can be an advantage to the youngster seeking civilian employment. **Over 80% of Air Force jobs have civilian application,** a compatibility which we reinforce from pre-enlistment to post-separation. Under the guaranteed job program, a qualified enlistee can specify an available job from a list of 132 possibilities; if he doesn't get it, he can leave the service. For a veteran there is the GI Bill, which helps him complete up to 36 months of college education at a current monthly rate of $220, more with dependents.

In the meantime the Air Force sends the recruit to a good technical training school. It encourages him to further pursue his professional and educational training by funding as much as 75% of the tuition for off-duty courses, and by completely subsidizing more than 200 correspondence courses offered through the U. S. Armed Forces Institute. **But most unique of all is the new Community College of the Air Force.** This agency is now proceeding toward full civilian accreditation of its seven technical schools. It will provide each airman with a transcript of his education/training, particularly meaningful when he leaves the service. And it will award him a Career Education Certificate in one of 76 majors upon completion of a minimum of 64 semester hours of Air Force and college instruction.

*That leaves pay. Single airmen annually earn $5300 plus $1,000 or free housing, after two years and three promotions. If married, they earn $6800. Add to this a paid 30-day vacation, free medical and dental care, travel opportunity, and shopping/insurance/recreation savings. **Department of Labor figures show that on the average this airman nets over $40 a month more than his civilian counterpart.**

We think the Air Force is a vocational asset worth many young peoples' consideration. **This office plans to exhibit at your forthcoming national and regional conventions. Please stop by. Or write us at Hq ATC/RSAE, Randolph Air Force Base, Texas 78148.**

*Note pay increase effected in January 1973.

financial aid, housing, placement, counseling, and testing services) for a term. One might be surprised to find quick appreciation among faculty who seek to shed academic advisement chores and among administrators who frequently hide from students. It is simply a matter of politics and self-assertion.

EDWARD S. BECK
Pennsylvania State University
Middletown, Pennsylvania

She and He in the World of Work

The need for career education in kindergarten and the early years has been proclaimed. As L. Sunny Hansen wrote in the December 1972 PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, "It is in the elementary years that attitudes about self and work are formed; during these years, therefore, the focus needs to be on beginning to develop self-awareness. . . . Elementary children also need ideas and information about the work world in a broad sense." I read that sentence to my seven-year-old daughter, who recently had volunteered to participate in a "world of work" program in her public elementary school. I felt that an elementary child's reaction might supply informal evidence of the efficacy of early emphasis on vocational development. I therefore asked my daughter if she would dictate her reactions to her program. The following is her verbatim report:

"First thing about world of work is that world of work is a very special thing, because it is not just taking one job like sewing or not just one job like plowing snow. World of work is a job that anybody could spread out and do their own thing. World of work is not just an answer to an end. It is like a new and better world than you've been in. It is a whole different thing. You are doing what you want to when you want to. You don't have to jump right into things. You can have your own feel in it. If you don't understand what I'm saying—it's a very good thing if you want to learn how to be a dancer you can; if you want to know how to be a scientist you can; if you want to know how to work on a farm and be a farmer you can; if you want to know how to be an animal trainer you can. You can be a tightrope walker in a circus or you could be a grave

builder. Really what I am trying to tell you is—it's like all different jobs put together and all different sizes, shapes, and colors of people doing what they want. A white or dark-colored person could do it. She and he and him and her and everybody can be in world of work."

KAREN JEAN SCHLOSSBERG, grade 2, age 7
NANCY K. SCHLOSSBERG
Wayne State University
Detroit, Michigan

Gentle Rape/Harsh Castration

Even in poetry, the battle of the sexes continues. Considering the tragic fact that even Christians fight over slight differences (e.g., Ireland), will the discrimination ever end? I suspect not, and I suspect it goes both ways —and more equally than either sex would wish to admit.

Men hurt too, and even though I understand Ms. Sherrard ["Gentle Rape," in the October 1972 JOURNAL], I dedicate this poor attempt at poetry to her.

HARSH CASTRATION

Harsh
  and firm
    obvious
      and very
        clear
Quickly
  with no
    guilt
      and great
        fear
The castration
  goes on
    cutting
      one
        down
Making sure
  that men know
    their place
      and that women
        have no peer.

Maybe we all become a little too paranoid in this world of ours!

JAMES C. CREW
St. Louis Park (Minnesota) Public Schools

Editorial

LIGHT TWO CANDLES FOR EVALUATION

A friend I saw recently at a meeting shook me up when he said angrily, "You've done the guidance field a serious disservice by cutting research out of the JOURNAL!" The next day, when we had both cooled down a bit, I asked him to spell out just what he meant.

What it came down to mostly was his belief that it is dangerous to publish descriptions of new techniques or programs without including any kind of systematic evaluation. It is dangerous, he said, not only because it encourages counselors to accept new practices without rigorous evidence of their merits, but also because it implies that it is perfectly all right for readers themselves to start using these methods without evaluating *their* work.

Agreed, I said; these are dangerous. What can P&G do? His first suggestion was that we return to our earlier practice of publishing specific evaluation reports. But I was able to convince him pretty quickly that the traditional research reports do not serve the purpose. First, most such reports are so limited in scope that they would not serve as any basis for conclusions as to whether Jane and Joe Counselor could expect to find the technique useful in *their* hands with *their* clients in *their* agency, college, or school. Second, we agreed that many, if not most, such reports are so technical in nature that the average Jane and Joe Counselor simply would not get much out of them.

Well, we asked each other, what *could* P&G do to help? Two kinds of suggestions emerged. The first would be a new kind of article—in effect, a teaching article about evaluation. It might well center around a specific evaluation study, but the main purpose would be to explain what was good and what was bad about the study, how it did and did not answer specific practical questions, and what valid implications could and could not be drawn from its results.

The other suggestion is the review type of article, but not one that is mainly a collection of research abstracts or a highly technical discussion of research methodology. Rather, a P&G review should distill and interpret the research and bring our readers a critical analysis of the state of the art as viewed from the vantage point of practicing counselors. The focal points of such an article should be the kinds of questions a busy practitioner would probably ask: How is the technique best used? By whom? With whom? Under what conditions? And what outcomes can I expect?

We welcome the efforts of writers who would like to try their hands at one or both of these approaches. These are only two of the possible bridges over the gap between researchers and counselors, but they would at least be a couple of candles to help light the dark. ■ LG

Preventing drug abuse: where are we now?

RICHARD W. WARNER, JR.

Counselors in many settings are involved in the development and implementation of drug abuse prevention programs. It is therefore essential that counselors be as informed as possible about the characteristics of drug abusers and about the drug abuse prevention programs that seem to hold some promise of being effective. This article provides some of this information by examining the research literature and extracting from it the common themes that have meaning for counselors in almost any population.

The abuse of drugs among various segments of the population, particularly the young, has become a major social concern during the last decade. Magazines such as *Good Housekeeping* (Growing Peril . . . 1966), *Ladies' Home Journal* (Drugs . . . 1970), the *New York Times Magazine* (Samuels 1970), and *Time* (A New View . . . 1971) have helped awaken the public to the scope of the problem at both the national and local levels. Similarly, government officials, such as former Governor of Pennsylvania Raymond Shafer (1969) and President Nixon (1971) have expressed their concern over the problem and have called for action to control and prevent the spread of drug abuse (Hoffman 1972). As often happens in this country when a social problem is recognized, large numbers of programs for dealing with the problem are hurriedly and unsystematically thrown together. In such circumstances even the most humanitarian efforts are often doomed to failure or have limited success because those responsible for the programs have not considered two very basic

questions: What have others done? What have they found?

Because counselors are often involved in the planning and implementation of drug abuse prevention programs, it is essential that they be able to answer these questions at least to the extent that answers are available. The purpose of this article is to provide some of the answers through an examination of current knowledge about the nature of the drug abuser and the status of drug abuse prevention programs in this country.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DRUG ABUSER

One of the essential elements in the planning of any program is an understanding of the population for which the program is intended. Unfortunately, there is an abundance of "think" articles on the characteristics of drug abusers but a lack of solid research findings that either support or deny these "think" pieces.

Alienation and Drug Abuse

Perhaps the most dominant assumption made concerning drug abusers is that they are in some way alienated from society. Stanley Yolles, former director of the National Institute of Mental Health, has proposed "that if we are ever to solve the problem of drug abuse, it is critical for us to focus on and try to solve the root causes of alienation [Yolles 1968,

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p. 9]." Halleck (1967), Bear (1969), and Finlator (1968) have also attributed drug abuse to alienation, and Heilbrunn (1967) has stated that a sense of insecurity and skepticism in youth leads them to abuse drugs. The list of writers who support this position is almost endless, but there are few studies in the literature that lend support to this position.

Blane, Hill, and Brown (1968) did examine the relationship between alienation and attitudes toward the use of alcohol among 526 students in grades 9 through 12. While they found no significant relationship between students' attitudes toward the temperate use of alcohol and alienation, they did find that the alienated student was more tolerant of irresponsible alcohol use.

Harris (1971), in a study of 1,380 college students, concluded that marijuana users were more alienated than nonusers. Horman (1971), in a study of 284 college students, found that those students who were alienated were more likely to use illegal drugs than the nonalienated.

In a more extensive study Barter, Mizner, and Werme (1971) found no relationship between alienation and drug abuse in a population of 26,150 college students in the Denver-Boulder, Colorado, area. Similarly, Suchman (1968) found no relationship between alienation and drug abuse among college students, and in a recent investigation Hoffman (1972) also found no relationship between alienation and drug abuse across three different types of collegiate settings. Finally, Warner and Swisher (1971), in a study of 495 high school students, found no significant relationship between feelings of alienation and attitudes toward the use of illegal drugs.

In summary, the results of the research at this point are not as clear as some writers would lead us to believe. What these results do indicate to planners of drug abuse programs is that programs based solely on the assumption that alienation is the major cause of drug

abuse may miss a large segment of their target population.

Socioeconomic Status and Drug Abuse

It is now generally assumed that the drug abuse problem cuts across socioeconomic levels; the research literature appears to support this assumption. There is, however, one noteworthy fact that program planners should take into account: Several researchers (Barter et al. 1971; Sharoff 1969; Warner 1969) found that students from the middle and upper socioeconomic groups tended to be more involved with marijuana, amphetamines, and hallucinogens, while students from the lower socioeconomic groups tended to be more involved in narcotics. One could surmise about the reasons for such findings, but the important point for program planners is that this difference in drug use by students of different socioeconomic levels does exist.

Student Involvement and Drug Use

Several investigations have indicated a positive relationship between student drug abuse and lack of involvement in other activities. Smith and Udell (1969) found that 60 percent of the students in five high schools believed that drugs were turned to out of boredom. Barter and others (1971) and Warner (1969) similarly found that incidence of drug abuse was much higher for those students who were dissatisfied with school than for those who were generally satisfied. Hoffman (1972), however, found virtually no relationship between drug abuse and students' satisfaction with their college experience. These findings suggest that lack of involvement may be a contributing factor to drug abuse at the high school level but may have less importance as an individual moves to the college campus.

Peer Influence and Drug Abuse

Many writers have asserted that the abuse of drugs is related to peer influence

(Finlator 1968; Richards & Langer 1971; Zweibelson 1971). These writers hold that an individual's need to belong to a peer group is a prime motivation for involvement in drugs. Four separate investigations lend support to this basic assumption. Warner and Swisher (1971), in a study of high school students, found that the most powerful influence toward the abuse of drugs was peer influence. Similar findings were reported by Brayer (1970), Brown (1971), and Hoffman (1972). An additional finding of the Brown investigation was that the more heavily involved a student became in drug abuse, the more his circle of friends became restricted to those who used drugs. This finding lends some support to the notion that individuals who become involved in drugs move into a kind of drug culture, which, in turn, acts to exclude the nonuser. These studies, while not establishing any cause-effect relationship between social pressure and drug abuse, do support the notion that drug abuse tends to be a group phenomenon and that program planners would do well to build into their programs means of utilizing groups and the power of peer pressure.

While the literature does contain a few other studies of the characteristics of drug abusers, they are somewhat isolated and do not appear to have been replicated. One exception to this is a series of investigations by Carney and his associates (Carney & Clark 1972), which established that there is a relationship between an individual's willingness to take risks and his abuse of drugs.

Implications of the Research

What these findings indicate is that there is no simple, single reason for the abuse of drugs. Individuals involved in the planning of drug abuse programs cannot afford to continue basing programs on some global notion about the causes of drug abuse or the nature of the drug abuser. While the findings reported here are not conclusive, they do provide more meaningful information on which to base programs than do simple theoretical hunches.

The data available seems to indicate that drug programs based solely on the notion that attacking the problem of alienation will solve the problem of drug abuse are inadequate. The data further indicates that the focus of a drug program needs to take into account the socioeconomic level of its target population. If, as the results reported indicate, those from lower socioeconomic levels are more inclined to be involved in narcotics while the middle and upper socioeconomic levels are more involved in marijuana and the hallucinogens, then programs dealing with these populations should reflect that information. It makes little sense to spend a great deal of time discussing narcotics with a group of individuals whose probability of being involved with narcotics is very low.

Perhaps the two most important themes that the research supports are the factors of boredom and peer influence. If a strong relationship exists between boredom or lack of involvement and drug abuse or between peer and individual abuse, then programs should focus on these two elements. Many drug programs focus either on the pharmacological nature of drugs or the causes of drug abuse. In a sense, such programs can be characterized as looking backward. A more positive approach would seem to be the development of programs that make use of the power of peer influence, focusing on ways individuals can eliminate their boredom by getting involved in life. Such programs have the benefit of looking to the future rather than the past; of searching for constructive alternatives rather than hidden causes. The full impact of such an approach may be better understood after examining the results of the evaluations of drug abuse prevention programs that have appeared in the literature.

DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION PROGRAMS

A drug abuse prevention program has the possibility of focusing on three levels of human activity (Swisher, Warner & Shute 1972): (a) the cognitive level, where the program's format is essentially factual in nature and is designed primarily to increase knowledge and understanding about drugs; (b) the affective level, where the program attempts to influence feelings and emotions by considering attitudes toward drugs; and (c) the behavioral level, where the program's primary concern is altering or strengthening modes of conduct.

While most drug abuse prevention programs hope to have some impact in all three areas, the focus of many programs has been restricted to the informational, or cognitive, level. The philosophy of such programs was summarized by Ungerleider (1968), a well-known authority on drug abuse:

We are just there to present the kind of information that is available so that they can figure out for themselves how they want to approach the problems of drugs [p. 627].

The obvious assumption of such an approach is that increased knowledge will have beneficial effects on participants' attitudes toward and their actual use of drugs. As a result of such thinking,

We are seeing an ever-increasing number of such programs and a deluge of kits, pamphlets, devices, learning modules, etc., to educate the population in drug abuse [Meadows 1972, p. 1].

Unfortunately, the research in this area does not support all this activity. Richards (1971) reported two studies, one conducted by Geis and another conducted by the California Department of Education, both of which found that short-term programs of four weeks or less did increase participants' knowledge but had only moderate effects on attitudes. Further, in 4 of the 11 schools in the California study, the amount of drug abuse actually increased following the program. Another series of investigations

(Swisher et al. 1971; Swisher & Warner 1971a; Swisher & Warner 1971b) found a consistent relationship between knowledge about drugs and pro-drug attitudes and between knowledge about drugs and use of marijuana. At the very least, these findings cast some doubt on the advisability of basing drug abuse prevention programs solely on the presentation of accurate information.

Little research has been conducted on programs that focus on either the affective or the behavioral level. The research that is reported in this area does show more promise than the results discussed above. In one investigation with high school students, where the focus was on developing antidrug attitudes and considering alternatives to drugs, participants' knowledge about drugs increased, but their attitudes remained unchanged (Swisher, Warner & Herr 1972). In a further refinement of the approach with junior high students, participants' knowledge increased, and their attitudes did move substantially in an antidrug direction (Warner, Swisher & Horan 1973).

Horan and Swisher (1972) also were successful in promoting antidrug attitudes among college students by using an approach that focused on values and attitudes rather than information. Another approach that places emphasis on attitude formation is exemplified in the value oriented program of the Coronado Unified School District (Brayer 1970). This approach uses a value-sharing technique in classrooms at all grade levels, the assumption being that if students are equipped with certain values they will be less likely to abuse drugs. The preliminary results from this three-year study are encouraging. Operation Future, a program conducted in the Kings-Tulare Counties of California, also uses a value oriented approach. Thus far the project has been able to produce significant decreases in the use of marijuana, amphetamines, and barbiturates among secondary school students (Clark 1972).

It is clear, then, that those programs focusing on attitudes or values have been more successful than those focusing on information. The question is: How does the counselor who is involved in program planning put this information together with the information about characteristics of drug abusers and make it meaningful for his particular population?

IMPLEMENTING PROGRAMS

One of the most important findings of the research is the contradiction of the assumption that a simple relationship exists between some single cause and the abuse of drugs. The findings indicate that the causes of drug abuse are exceedingly complex and that no drug abuse prevention program can hope to deal with them all. It makes more sense rather to place the focus of the program on the future. The prevention programs that have shown some evidence of being successful have as a common theme an emphasis on the future rather than the past. These programs emphasize the development of attitudes and values that lead to modes of living that are incompatible with the abuse of drugs. Such an approach is also compatible with a developmental emphasis. Counselors can work with teachers, students, and others in developing programs that have an overriding emphasis on value development appropriate to the various characteristics (e.g., age and socioeconomic level) of participants. This also has the advantage of moving the concept of a drug prevention program from a one-shot or short-term program to a long-range, integrated program.

The research also indicates that programs using small group work are most effective. In the context of the small group, a skillful group leader can utilize peer influence. The study by Warner, Swisher, and Horan (1973) has demonstrated that group procedures using a taped model demonstrating the desired behavior can be an effective procedure for increasing knowledge about drugs and moving attitudes in an antidrug direction. In this investigation the model did not talk about the reasons for not taking drugs; rather the emphasis was on discussing ways individuals could get turned on by life instead of drugs. The job of the group leader in this situation is to structure the group around a consideration of positive ways of living, not a negative consideration of "what not to do." While the addition of a model may enhance the discussion, counselors who do not feel comfortable with this approach need not use it. The most important element is an emphasis on what kinds of activities can be engaged in rather than what kinds of activities should be avoided.

The research also shows conclusively that those who get involved in drugs tend not to be involved in other activities; thus those programs that place an emphasis on getting involved in life would seem most appropriate. Counselors need to plan programs that demonstrate ways in which participants can make their lives meaningful. This approach is not easy, for most of what young people observe and most of what happens to them indicates that life is not very meaningful. Often individuals have not been provided the tools they need to deal with the system in which they exist, and the counselor must be prepared to demonstrate to participants some of the ways changes can be made in a person's life. This may mean going beyond the typical encounter group experience, with its emphasis on self-understanding. While self-understanding is a necessary prerequisite to growth, participants can also benefit from an understanding of such concepts as student power, decision making, and the expressed and unexpressed power points within the society. An understanding of self may provide the motivation for meaningful involvement in life, but knowledge about the necessary tools

for change gives individuals the means to act on their motivation.

In summary, the research on characteristics of the drug abuser and the evaluations of drug abuse prevention programs present a common theme: Drugs are being abused by a wide variety of individuals for a wide variety of reasons, but the majority of abusers can be characterized as uninvolved in life. Those programs that have shown some promise do not emphasize identifying causes of drug abuse or providing information about drugs but take a positive and future oriented approach that places an emphasis on getting involved in life. These programs go beyond motivating the participants in that direction; they attempt to provide some of the tools the participants need to get there. ■

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Have Your Journals Been Arriving Late?

Each issue of P&G takes about three and a half months from the day the editor sends manuscripts for a monthly issue to APGA Headquarters until the day that the issue is printed, addressed, and mailed. Despite the fact that many things can and do cause delays, for the most part we have met all the deadlines. Every month, within a day or two of the target date, all copies of P&G are placed in the mail; that date is usually the last day of each month from August to May.

Your copy should therefore reach you somewhere between the 5th and 10th of the month, and there really is no reason why anybody should receive the *Journal* later than the 15th of the month of issue. But we know that some people will receive their copies of this April issue as late as the end of April and some not even until May!

We want you to know that this is entirely the fault of the U.S. Postal Service. Their handling of second class mail is unbelievably bad and seems to have gotten worse in recent months. We are doing all we can to bring you your journal in good time; if delivery is late, perhaps you need to try to do something about the mail service.

THE QUALIFIERS

He leaned so close, across from me,
But for the desk, knee could touch knee.
My back was sore, my hands were cold;
The hope I'd brought was growing old.

"I want to quit—I want to work."
(I'd said it; would he frown or smirk?)
"They tell me school and jobs don't mix,
Yet I am in an awful fix. . . ."

"Yes, *but*—" he said (Oh, here we go,
Next words I hear will lead with "No.").
But wait—he's quiet, sitting there
Not moving, leaning back in chair.
A moment passed, then two or three,
And up he got, undesked and free.

Around that wall he came as though
The room were blazing inferno.
"We have been wrong!" he said, amazed
To hear the words come out unfazed.

He took a breath and looked at me:
"*Where* is it that you'd rather be?"
I stuttered, "Down the road a ways;
A great guy has a job that pays."

(He listened, and I couldn't keep
From spilling dreams that wreck my sleep.)
"Ed says I have a way with wood
That few he knows have understood.
A gift, he calls it; I don't know,
But people *there* just let me go!"

"And here?" "It's hard for me to see
What this stuff has to do with me.
If I could work—I am sixteen—
There'd be less floors for Mom to clean.
And maybe even one day soon
There'd be a school at night, *not* noon!"

"There is." "You mean for older guys—
The ones who *pick* what makes them wise?"
He grinned at me, "*You* qualify—
And more than that, now so can I."

Nancy M. Pinson
Maryland State Department of Education
Baltimore, Maryland

The progressive heritage of guidance: a view from the left

HAROLD J. ADAMS

As one part of a larger progressive movement, the guidance and counseling movement has typically supported progressive programs in the schools and in society as a whole. While most counselors point with pride to such a progressive heritage, a case can be made that the effect of progressivism is to prop up existing structures and resist fundamental change in societal institutions. In this article the author discusses four ideals that are commonly held by the progressive and the counseling movements, pointing out some of the destructive effects these ideals have on societal change efforts. The four ideals discussed are: (a) an emphasis on access to opportunity (pluralism), (b) an emphasis on pragmatism, (c) an emphasis on adjustment, and (d) an emphasis on individualism.

Several years ago I was startled by a friend who declared that, as far as he could see, "the main function of counseling [was] to keep the lid on oppressive institutions." In my state of awareness at that time I understood that the institutions were oppressive, but it seemed to me that my friend did not understand the role that counseling could play in making the institutions more humane. He did not understand, I thought, the role that counseling was playing in carrying on the progressive traditions of the first half of the century, traditions that had all but died during the fifties in virtually all educational quarters except guidance and counseling.

In the years since, I have come to believe that it was not my friend who lacked understanding of the progressive

humanitarian roots of guidance; rather, it was I who lacked an understanding of the politics of progressivism. I once thought that the reason counselors were becoming ineffective in schools was that they were being seduced by respectability and security away from progressive traditions. I now believe counseling and guidance has stayed true to its progressive heritage all along. The problem is not seduction away from progressivism but progressivism itself.

Since Frank Parsons, guidance has drawn its primary emphasis from a progressive heritage. As it has evolved in the schools, guidance has aligned itself with the tenets of the progressive education movement.

Nowhere are the effects [of the progressive education movement] more apparent, however, than in the work of the guidance counselor. Beyond any other individual in today's education system, he incarnates the aims and ideals of progressiveness. He is the most characteristic child of the progressive movement, and as such is heir to all of its vigor and optimism, and all of its diversity and contradiction [Cremin 1965, p. 5].

Guidance can be thought of as a child of the progressive education movement and the parent progressive education movement as a part of a larger liberal movement.

Most writers in the guidance move-

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ment have at least implied that the link between guidance and progressiveness is something about which the guidance movement should be proud. These writers assume the liberal humanitarian principles of progressivism to be in concert with guidance principles. These principles lead to fuller lives for individuals, lives where all persons may reach their potentials more fully. The counselor is referred to in recent guidance literature as an "agent of change" or as an "advocate" of student rights. That the counselor can be cast in these fairly controversial roles, at least in the journals, can be cited as evidence that the counselor is on the cutting edge, is constantly searching for up-to-date roles, is not afraid of controversy—is, in short, progressive.

It is the purpose of this article to show how guidance, in four of its emphases that are held in common with progressivism, has become a force reacting *against* fundamental change in education and, further, how guidance has become a strong and necessary support system for entrenching the schools, as they currently exist, in the society. Counselors are not intentionally stopping fundamental change; they are simply not aware of the larger consequences of their behavior, those beyond the immediate consequences that can be seen in their own client, small group, or school. They have become subject to a phenomenon that first Chomsky (1969) and then Kravitz (1970) called "mandarinism."

"Mandarinism" is the condition of acting or behaving without being aware or conscious of the role *really* played, the function *really* served or the objectives *really* pursued. In the vernacular of existentialism and "negativism" it is being "one-dimensional," "other-directed," "unauthentic," or "technical." From the phenomenological perspective it is neither intentional nor purposive and, therefore, must be viewed as non-rational at the existential level although it may be rational at the pragmatic level. Put into a positivist vernacular it is allowing role to be externally defined, functionally or operationally, with respect to the maintenance of a given sys-

tem, an established reality, or a set of ends which are not of one's own choosing. In the humanistic sense, it is not being a man and, thus, the very antithesis of planning [Kravitz 1970, p. 241].

FOUR COMMONLY HELD IDEALS

Emphasis on the four ideals discussed below—access to opportunity (pluralism), pragmatism, adjustment, and individualism—serve to place counselors in a regressive, reactionary position.

Access to Opportunity (Pluralism)

As opposed to many conservatives who bemoan the loss of "the American way of life," thereby implying that there is only one acceptable style of American living, progressives can usually be counted on to advocate a "broader base of participation" and "more alternative life styles for our diversified population." Progressives generally advocate a pluralistic society, in which a variety of values can flourish. Progressive movements lay great stress on including a wider spectrum of people in the "mainstream." By making information, schooling, and so on, available to all, it is argued, the poor and disenfranchised will have greater opportunity to "get their share of the pie."

Increasing access to opportunity means allowing a broader range of people to get material benefits from the culture. Guidance and counseling play an important role in this attempt to increase access to opportunity. The basic goals of guidance, according to most beginning counseling textbooks, are to help individuals become more aware of and be able to realize more fully their own potentials and to help them gain access to information about the environment and the world of work. Counselors *are* important in creating a pluralistic society. An individual needs assistance in getting into a complex culture. Especially helpful to the individual in this endeavor is a person who knows something about human interaction and is knowledgeable about the real world. An individual who

has been alienated from society might become angry or possibly revolutionary if not for an empathic person—enter the counselor—who could help.

Theoretically, a pluralistic society, in which access to opportunity is great for all, is good. If the wealth of this society were being drastically reapportioned, one might accept a reformist strategy for creating a pluralistic society. The truth is, however, that despite the enormous number of progressive educational programs implemented, no significant changes in property ownership, private income, or corporate wealth have occurred in the past 20 years.

[Equal opportunists] do not recognize that the needs they seek to ameliorate are but manifestations of the real condition of society. Instead of dealing with real conditions which demand radical change in the institutions of the society, they have reduced the basic problems of elitism and one-dimensional culture to problems of access to opportunity which can be handled through gradual reform [Kravitz 1970, p. 262].

Counselors attempt to help clients make wise vocational, educational, and personal decisions, the assumption being that there is a niche for everyone somewhere or that, if not, a place can be created for the client if (s)he can only get herself or himself together. Maybe the client needs to organize information, communicate better, perceive reality more accurately, or build a larger response repertoire. Basically the counselor believes that the society can presently accommodate virtually everybody. Although counselors imply that problems are primarily individually based, if societal problems do exist they can be resolved by working for greater access to opportunity (pluralism) within the society.

As indicated by Kravitz, many who believe in such accommodation strategies are naive. Reforms act merely as tranquilizers for people, while things stay essentially the same. To support such programs, which counselors do by the very nature of their role, is to help thwart serious attempts to fundamentally

change and expand our views of the society generally and of the schools specifically.

Pragmatism

Pragmatism is the second ideal held in common between guidance and the progressive movement. It is the basic operating philosophy of progressivism, which confines itself to changing means, not ends. In discussing a different but related phenomenon, Bernstein (1969) noted:

Experimentation [in Roosevelt's New Deal] was most frequently limited to means: seldom did it extend to ends. Never questioning private enterprise, it operated within safe channels, far short of Marxism or even of native American radicalism that offered structured critiques and structured solutions [p. 264].

Pragmatic thought dictates that the process become the end and be reflected by current advocates of progressive eduction. Or, as Macdonald (1972) put it:

It seems clear that the method of reflective thinking or some process similar to this underlies the whole process movement in education. Dewey and others would argue for process as the "nature of things." Today, process has the added rationale of being practical since, as knowledge explodes, "coverage" of stated information becomes less and less possible. The frequently stated goal of "learning how to learn" is a direct descendant of the progressive educator's concern for process. In fact, this goal may well have found its formulation, if not popularity, during the beginning days of the progressives [p. 5].

Like their progressive counterparts in politics and education, counselors too are pragmatic. Examples abound. School counselors, at best, help to make school tolerable for students; they do not change the essential nature of the school. Vocational counselors help clients make realistic and reasonable vocational choices; they do not examine the nature of the economy that creates inadequate, dehumanizing jobs or no jobs at all. "Good" counselors help alienated clients find a "niche" in the society where alienation is held at a tolerable level; they do not analyze the source of alienation in the

culture and attempt to change it. Counselors who employ the human relations group methods of the human potentialities movement help clients relate better to one another by examining interaction processes within groups; they rarely analyze the societal source of the barriers between people, and they certainly do not take action toward changing the societal sources.

There seems to be an assumption among counselors that human problems are within the self. This applies both to behavioral counselors, who tend to see problems as being based on an *individual's* lack of skills or inappropriate response repertoire, and to the more existential counselors, who tend to view problems as being based on the *individual's* perception of her or his own existential reality. The problems, being within the self, logically must be resolved by putting the self through some process that can help the individual increase skills, change behavior responses, reduce fear, vary perceptions, and so forth. In other words, it is the goal of counseling to find a pragmatic answer similar to the "learning how to learn" goal of the progressive educator.

From the viewpoint of people who desire a more fundamental societal change, there is nothing inherently wrong with these process goals of counseling if they operate as means toward achieving larger ends (e.g., changing the character of the society and its institutions). But attending only to self-related aspects of problems in the human condition to the exclusion of analyzing and treating the society that creates the conditions of human suffering has the effect of stifling the conflict between the individual and society, a conflict so necessary for a multidimensional approach to life. Counseling typically ignores one half of the relationship of the individual and the society. Working only to influence the individual has the effect of giving implicit approval to the society. If the dialectic so necessary for change is destroyed, then the option of long-range purposeful change itself is destroyed. The only change left is incremental, short-range, pragmatic, and restricted to the individual.

In his introduction to *One-Dimensional Man,* Marcuse (1964) discusses the potential of society to contain change.

Contemporary society seems to be capable of containing social change—qualitative change which would establish essentially different institutions, a new direction of the productive process, new modes of human exsitence. This containment of social change is perhaps the most singular achievement of advanced industrial society; the general acceptance of the National Purpose, bipartisan policy, the decline of pluralism, the collusion of Business and Labor within the strong State testify to the integration of opposites which is the result as well as the prerequisite of this achievement [p. xii].

Counseling, as one progressive movement, contributes to this "integration of opposites," and the rationale for such integration is founded in counseling's penchant for process, which is, in turn, founded in the pragmatic philosophy of progressivism. The process has become the goal.

For counselors, the pragmatic approach frequently means that the process of counseling itself is the "good." Counseling goals are not presented in societal terms. Instead, the counseling goals we most frequently read about are either directly related to the counseling process itself (empathy, genuineness, etc.) or to outcome variables that are very limited in scope, such as "increase in vocational search behavior" or "more time in attending to teacher directions." Seldom are those goals related to the larger societal conditions. The limited goals make people feel comfortable for a time. They are, in short, pragmatic. That seems to be enough for the counseling movement.

The point is demonstrated in the May 1971 Special Issue of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, which includes articles by progressive counselors and other individuals working for more fundamen-

tal change. The articles by "nonprofessionals," such as the Vocations for Social Change Collective, challenge counseling even as an ethical practice. The articles by "professional" counselors treat counseling as if it were a very good thing that has merely wandered astray somewhere along the line. For example, Kincaid and Kincaid start their article by asserting that the purpose of "counseling is to affirm life [p. 727]." It seems more accurate to assert not that counseling is life affirming but rather that it serves to adjust people to a system that, in the long run, dominates them and oppresses their lives.

Adjustment

Closely related to the emphasis on pragmatism is another ideal commonly held by both counseling and progressivism. It is the emphasis on adjustment of the individual to the society. In schools this takes the form of adjusting students to the institution. The emphasis on adjustment is a result of the progressive's prior emphasis on process. The progressive educator's goal of "learning how to learn" and the counselor's goal of "learning how to cope" are taught as the valuable skills necessary in a complex industrial society. It must be realized, however, that adherence to these process goals will result in adjustment to the present system. In this society, mobilization is toward the goals of our economic system (e.g., profit, competition, individualism, and work). The mobilization is large and is implicit in the fabric of the society and its institutions.

Dewey recognized the need for radical changes 35 years ago.

In short, liberalism must now become radical, meaning by "radical" perception of the necessity of thoroughgoing changes in the set-up of institutions and corresponding activity to bring the changes to pass [Dewey 1935, p. 62].

But with respect to the liberal's role in bringing the changes to pass, Dewey says:

Until a classless society arrives . . . liberalism will continue to have a necessary social office to perform. Its task is the mediation of social transitions [p. 48].

And later:

There is always an adjustment to be made, and as soon as the need for it becomes conscious, liberalism has a function and a meaning. It is not that liberalism creates the needs, but that the necessity for adjustment defines the office of liberalism [p. 49].

Like many counselors practicing today, Dewey recognized the need for fundamental changes but thought the changes could be initiated by "adjustments." Dewey did not overestimate the liberal's ability to initiate reforms; he simply underestimated the capacity of the existing structure to absorb reforms without making basic changes. The fundamental nature of the system not only remains unchanged; it is actually strengthened by appearing to attempt the accommodation of more people.

School counselors do the same thing. They have concerned themselves only with process reforms such as modular schedules, open classrooms, nonthreatening climates, new architecture, and the like, which were originally processes for achieving change. These reforms may have rendered the schools somewhat less intolerable to students but have left them essentially unchanged with regard to goals. Process reforms keep the lid on. Progressive programs, of which counselors on the whole have been supportive, serve only to make the schools bearable. Schools that need radical (in the sense of "root" causes) overhauling can be made to work for decades by programs that serve only to substitute transient satisfaction for substantial, qualitative change.

It is striking how supportive the personal values in this society are to the maintenance of a highly consumption oriented economy. As a culture, society places a high value on individualism, competitiveness, organization, complexity, and ownership. A low value is placed

on collectivism, dependency, simplicity, aestheticism, and humility. The economy plays off personal values. Personal values play off the economy. They are, in fact, the same.

To fundamentally change this arrangement takes more than attempts at making people "good citizens" or teaching them "how to learn" or "how to cope." Even if these process goals are reached as humanely as possible, they still amount to an adjustment of the individual. And adjustment to such a one-dimensional educational system results in the stabilization and entrenchment of the society to which individuals are "adjusted."

Individualism

The fourth ideal that counseling holds in common with progressivism is its devotion to individualism. In a short essay, "Why I Am Not a Communist," Dewey captures the implicit importance of individualism in the American culture.

> The other point ignored by the Communists is our deeply rooted belief in the importance of individuality, a belief that is almost absent in the Oriental world from which Russia has drawn so much. Not to see that this attitude, so ingrained in our habitual ways of thought and action, demands a very different set of policies and methods from those embodied in official Communism, verges to my mind on potential insanity [Dewey 1934, p. 88].

Dewey implies that individualism is good, since it is more or less at the roots of our culture. That individualism is at the root of the culture is true. The effects of individualism on our culture, however, produce mixed blessings. Certainly individual differences exist and the integrity of the individual must be actively preserved. Certainly individuals should not be forced to conform by becoming "organization men." It is also true that an economic system based on competition and consumption needs a norm of individualistic behavior among the people that live under the system.

There are, however, some very difficult problems that arise when a culture puts such a premium on independence and individualism. We begin to deny our needs for interdependence and community. The result, according to many social critics, is loneliness and alienation.

> Individualism finds its roots in the attempt to deny the reality and importance of human interdependence. One of the major goals of technology in America is to "free" us from the necessity of relating to, submitting to, depending upon, or controlling other people. Unfortunately, the more we have succeeded in doing this the more we have felt disconnected, bored, lonely, unprotected, unnecessary and unsafe [Slater 1970, p. 26].

To fulfill their roles as props for existing institutions, it is absolutely imperative that progressives, like Dewey, embody the culturally held value of individualism. Individualism is synonymous with Americanism. To deny the value of such a concept would render the progressives helpless as reformists. First, they would be rejected by the larger population. More importantly, they might even find their own thinking pushed beyond the myopic conditions imposed on them by pragmatism and pushed toward working for fundamental changes in cultural values. In short, they would be radicalized away from what they have always accepted as desirable cultural values and directed toward creating the values of a new order.

An alternative to the present functioning of counseling involves tipping the balance radically away from individualistic behavior and toward collective behavior. Progressivism in the political arena of the thirties used the norm of individualism (i.e., the rights to property ownership and profit) to resist fundamental moves toward socialism (Bernstein 1969). Similarly, counselors continually encourage clients to become self-sufficient and independent. The right of individual teachers to teach what they wish in the way they wish, even if students are oppressed by that content or procedure, is protected by suggesting that clients cope *individually* with those oppressive conditions. Collective actions by

students are not typically encouraged and are frequently characterized as cowardly, unfair, or weak. The norm of individualism, so dearly held in counseling, has the effect of more firmly entrenching a larger system that depends heavily on individualism.

A NEW STRUCTURE

Those who work for fundamental change in the structure of society view the politics of progressivism as regressive. They see the four emphases discussed above, which are so much a part of progressive thought and behavior, as having been essential to prop up a system that needs to fall. Human needs, they argue, cannot be met in a system that requires competition, profit, and individualism to survive. A new structure based on cooperation, equality, and collectivism must be established. To support the values of the existing structure is to perpetuate that structure and keep people in a state of inequality.

Those in the guidance and counseling movement who support fundamental change should stop behaving in ways that ultimately serve to oppress rather than liberate people. The path for guidance is not the one that has evolved from its progressive heritage. The blueprint for action is not totally clear, but it surely involves the cessation of certain traditional guidance activities that most blatantly serve to perpetuate the existing structure. The activities that should cease include some that are most dear to guidance historically. Among them are: vocational guidance, which serves both to make an unfair and inadequate job market more acceptable and also to help fill the "manpower" needs of an economy that is based on exploitation; large-scale achievement and intelligence testing, which performs a stratification function; crisis intervention counseling, which serves to keep the lid on potentially explosive situations—especially in schools;

and personal adjustment counseling, which serves to convince clients that the source of their alienation is within the self.

Counselors have some skills that can be helpful in the struggle for fundamental change. Presumably, we are experts in human interaction. If we can use our skills in this area to help people realize the source of their alienation and help them get together to take action, then we have a function as counselors. It is imperative, however, that we develop our own awareness in relation to societal conditions before we presume to use our skills. We must first *listen* very hard to oppressed people (young people, women, poor people, and racial minorities). Those of us who fall into none of those groups can, for the time being, only listen and support. If we begin to act before we develop an awareness of the oppressive nature of the status quo, we will again fall into the progressive trap of believing that it is enough that our actions are humane. We must not continue to be mandarins—unaware of the long-range effects of our actions—continuing to make oppressive structures function. ■

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TWO SIDES OF PROTECTION

Returning home,
Collar turned up,
   catching wet, late-winter snow.
Flakes, cold,
   melting on my neck's warmth.
Snow dense,
   enhaloing street lights
   effacing not-too-distant windows,
A curtain of settling white.

An empty car,
Lights left on,
   cutting paths through wet, late-winter snow.
Approaching, to help,
To save my unknown fellow
   the trouble, frustration
Of returning in the dark
   to a dim, drained car.
Doors locked—
In the snow, the filling tracks
   of others gone door to door.
Like me, drawn to help,
   able not to help.

Continuing on, helpless,
   my thoughts remained—
Those needing help,
But closed to help.
Locked doors,
   closed to protect, keep safe,
And doing that very well,
But keeping out, as well
The caring ones who would help.

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Measuring women's interests: how useful?

CAROL MONNIK HUTH

Vocational interest inventories such as the SVIB are inherently appealing to women who seek career counseling. How useful they are to the counselor is another question. The author reviews studies employing the SVIB-W conducted during the past decade in order to answer such questions as: How reliable is the SVIB-W? How well does it differentiate interests? Can it effectively distinguish career commitments? Is it a good predictor? The author's conclusion is that information gained from this inventory is of minimal use in counseling women about careers.

In the past decade, the tempo of interest in career development for women has quickened as more and more women have entered the labor force. By 1980, 37 million women will be employed (U.S. Department of Labor 1970). This figure will be about 43 percent of the total working population, much too large a percentage to be neglected. As long as women viewed work as a "stopgap until marriage [Strong 1943, p. 129]," such neglect was understandable; but for growing numbers of women today, work is no longer a stopgap but a way of life. Because planning a way of life requires extensive self-exploration and familiarity with occupations and employment opportunities in the community, women will increasingly seek information and counseling. One of the traditional instruments in the armamentarium of counselors is the vocational interest inventory. How useful a tool is it?

SELECTING THE INVENTORY

The Kuder Preference Record (KPR) and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (SVIB) have been the inventories used most often for both counseling and research, although the SVIB appears to be the instrument favored for research by about 10 to 1, judging from the frequency of published reports cited in *Education Index*. Neither, however, has been extensively investigated with women; but the SVIB has received more attention and that more recently than the Kuder. Since 1965, studies using the SVIB women's form (SVIB-W) have more than doubled, from 76 to 168, but this is far behind the 1,099 publications cited for the SVIB men's form (Buros 1972).

Investigations of concurrent and predictive validity for women of the Kuder Occupational Form C have been skimpy, and the interpretability of Form B has been seriously questioned by Katz (Buros 1965). Validity data accumulated on Form DD is insufficient to recommend it to counselors. The one—seemingly the only—advantage enjoyed by the KPR over the SVIB was its design for hand scoring. This advantage was lost with

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the introduction of Form DD, which must be machine scored. If one wishes to select an inventory on the basis of how much it has been investigated, the SVIB for women would be the inventory of choice. That selection has been complicated, however, by the issuance of a new form in 1969, the SVIB-TW398, 113 items of which are different from the 1946 version.

The comparability of forms SVIB-W and the 1969 version was investigated by Johnson (1971). He compared the scores of 124 women ranging in age from 15 to 66, with an average age of 26, who had taken both forms of the inventory. He found that scale scores correlated well (median r=0.83) but that correlations between individual profiles had median r's of only 0.71. About 39 percent of the subjects tested on the two forms produced profiles with such discrepancies that counseling would have been altered. Interpretations from the SVIB-W profiles *cannot* be generalized to the 1969 version. Although Johnson recommends using the SVIB-TW398, few investigations of its concurrent validity and only one of its predictive validity are available. Consequently, the 1969 edition should be used in counseling with full knowledge of its uncertain validity.

How Reliable Is the SVIB-W?

Although the SVIB-W has been investigated more intensively in the past seven or eight years than previously, reliability studies are few. Three groups of women were investigated over 4, 15, and 26 years, respectively, by the test-retest method (Campbell 1965; Thomas 1955). The median test-retest correlations for the samples were 0.68, 0.64, and 0.53. These r values are about the same as those for the men's form, but because of small numbers of subjects, Campbell has suggested that the figures may not be as reliable (Strong 1966).

Nolting (1970) computed test-retest correlations for 316 women who took the SVIB as high school seniors or as college freshmen and who were retested 8 to 10 years later. Correlations for the whole group were 0.39 to 0.65, with the median 0.58. Whether correlations at this level are indicative of stability of interests is questionable, according to Rothney (1967). It does at least demonstrate a degree of uniformity of response to the items among women marking the inventory.

What Does the SVIB-W Measure?

When discussing content validity, the manual asserts:

The item content of the SVIB is heavily oriented toward occupational activities; consequently, when a person reports his feelings toward these, he is clearly reporting information that is relevant to his vocational planning [Campbell 1969, p. 21].

Rothney (1967) questions the acceptance of this approach, which he calls "content validity by fiat [p. 187]." Factor analysis of responses to the SVIB has shown that for the women's form, not all the content is concerned with occupational activities. It will be remembered that Crissy and Daniel (1939) found four factors in their study; three were like those found in studies of men's scores, but a fourth was unique to women. They called it the "male association" factor. It was found in the responses of a great many women, particularly those who scored high on the nurse, housewife, physical education teacher, elementary teacher, and stenographer scales.

Farnsworth (1969) studied the item responses to the SVIB-T400R of 671 women-in-general and identified 26 factors. Many of these factors are not directly oriented to vocations; rather they are concerned with homemaking and the feminine role.

Such findings as these call into question the content validity of the women's form of the SVIB. Obviously, if many of the items are about homemaking and the feminine role, the probability is great

that the profiles of the women marking the form are going to be high on these elements.

How Well Does the SVIB Differentiate Interests?

This is the most important information for the counselor who considers using a vocational interest inventory. Unfortunately, the SVIB does not demonstrate a wide diversity in the interests of the majority of women. In 1942, Skodak and Crissey, using the SVIB in a study with 297 high school girls, found that the four occupations of nurse, housewife, stenographer, and office worker accounted for virtually all A ratings. In a similar study, Layton (1958) tabulated the distribution of scores on the SVIB for 6,439 female high school seniors and for 591 female college freshmen. For high school seniors, virtually all A and B+ ratings were in the fields of office worker, elementary school teacher, housewife, and stenographer-secretary, all of which scales are highly correlated. Among college freshmen, these categories still contained the most high scores, but there were fewer on the housewife and elementary teacher scales and considerably more on the artist and social worker scales.

A third such tabulation (Joselyn 1968) revealed the same clustering of A and B+ ratings on the business education teacher, stenographer, office worker, and housewife scales. On these four scales, 28 percent, 65 percent, 70 percent, and 69 percent, respectively, of standard scores of 7,263 Minnesota high school girls were above 40, or in the A and B+ range.

Later investigators felt that this lack of differentiation of interest among women could be accounted for not by what Crissy and Daniel called the "male association" factor but by a factor that was labeled a home versus career factor. The problem of differentiating women's interests, particularly the dichotomous home versus career orientations, has been the object of many recent studies. If, after all, the counselor could identify the women in each orientation, it should be possible to offer more precise guidance to those in either category.

Can SVIB Scale Scores Distinguish between Home and Career Orientations?

Wagman (1966) compared the SVIB scale scores of 36 women students at the University of Illinois who said they intended to be career women with those of 96 women students who said they did not expect to work in any professional job. Those self-classified as career oriented had group means that were higher at statistically significant levels than the homemaker oriented group on the lawyer, physician, and psychologist scales. The homemaker group had group means that were higher at statistically significant levels on the housewife, home economics teacher, and dietician scales. Similar findings were published earlier by Hoyt and Kennedy (1958), who found that self-classified career women had higher average scores than homemaker oriented women on the artist, author, librarian, psychologist, physical education teacher, and physician scales. The average scores of homemaker oriented women were higher on the buyer, housewife, elementary school teacher, business education teacher, and dietician scales.

A study that tends to confirm Wagman's findings and Hoyt's and Kennedy's findings was carried out by Ross, Denenberg, and Chambers (1965), using 39 high school and 27 college women who were working in a summer program as biological research students. Analysis of their SVIB scores showed that the women were high on the dentist, lab technician, and physician scales and low in subprofessional and homemaking fields.

A study that, in essence, attempted to cross-validate the Hoyt and Kennedy study and the Wagman study was carried out by Gysbers, Johnston, and Gust (1968). They empirically identified women who

they thought were career oriented or homemaker oriented on the basis of a majority of A or B+ ratings on scales that correlated either +0.50 (homemaker oriented) or −0.50 (career oriented) with the housewife scale. Women whose scores were in the A or B+ range on the same scales 3 to 9 years later were called either "career stable" or "homemaker stable." Of the originally drawn sample, 65 percent and 61 percent, respectively, composed the final groups, with 29 career oriented and 52 homemaker oriented women. Of the women identified as career stable on their SVIB scores, 55 percent were identified on a questionnaire as having primary interest in a career rather than in homemaking. In the homemaker group 42 percent also placed work first. There were significant differences between the stable home oriented and career oriented groups on responses to an attitudinal survey, and there was a significant difference between their expressed preferences for placing primary emphasis on work or home. This latter finding is subject to reservation, however, since one third of the career stable group expressed no preference.

On balance, the evidence indicates that two distinct profile patterns are recognizable: One is characterized by high scores on the physician, artist, author, lawyer, and psychologist scales, and the other by high scores on the housewife, office worker, dietician, and home economics teacher scales. Whether these patterns indicate a career versus homemaker orientation is, however, debatable. The data of Gysbers, Johnston, and Gust only hints that women high on the "career" scales are primarily interested in work rather than homemaking.

Differentiating the Interests of Homemaker Oriented Women

The more difficult problem of differentiating among the interests of home oriented women has been tackled by several investigators. Farmer and Bohn (1970)

wondered if they could more clearly identify women's interests by reducing the sense of conflict between home and career. Twenty-five married and 25 single women currently working (all women were over the age of 40) took the SVIB once and then again, the second time with instructions to act as if there were no social or masculine impediments to females' working and no damage to child rearing. Means on six "career" scales and on eight "home" scales, chosen on the basis of their positive or negative correlations (±0.5) with the housewife scale, were computed for the standard and "act as if" sets of responses. Although there were statistically significant differences between the two administrations on the means of all but two scales, the difference did not often exceed two points. The authors found that gains in scores by some individuals were enough to change profile interpretation, but there were no gains of this extent for the majority of the group.

Harmon (1967) also tried to differentiate the interests of home oriented women. She chose to work with five groups: (a) 17 women who had never worked, (b) 44 women who had worked until marriage and then stopped, (c) 27 women who worked a majority of the time and were married, (d) 4 women who had returned to work after long unemployment, and (e) 6 single women who had worked continuously since finishing their schooling. Harmon hypothesized that (a) women who have never worked should have higher housewife scale scores than women who have worked and (b) women who have worked should have a higher score on the scale corresponding to their field of work than on the housewife scale. The hypotheses were not supported by the data. Only single women who had worked continuously showed some separation of scores between "own" occupation and housewife scales.

In another study, Harmon and Campbell (1968), while investigating the use of

interest inventories with nonprofessional women, constructed scales for airline stewardesses and dental assistants. They found that there were measurable differences between each group and a women-in-general group composed of equal representation of 26 occupational groups but that differentiation was not so good between the two occupations. In fact, there was an overlap of 72 percent between stewardesses and dental assistants when the dental assistant scale was used to score both criterion groups. These new scales are obviously adequate for distinguishing both the career oriented and women-in-general groups from the nonprofessional dental assistants and stewardesses, but they cannot distinguish so well between less professionally oriented women. It is most interesting, in connection with this investigation, to remember Campbell's comment:

It is possible that women in widely different nonprofessional occupations should be contrasted with a women-in-general group representative of such occupations [Strong 1966, p. 50].

One must conclude that the SVIB women's form does not show differentiation of interests of the majority of women very well but that it can distinguish two distinct interest patterns on the basis of high scores on the physician, psychologist, author, artist, and lawyer scales versus high scores on the housewife, home economics teacher, office worker, and stenographer scales. This bipolar pattern may indicate a home versus career orientation, or, as Schissel (1968) has suggested, a things versus people orientation. Perhaps it demonstrates an achievement versus affiliation orientation. The SVIB scales cannot identify which women will develop career commitment. Differentiation of the interests of homemakers or nonprofessional women does not seem to be possible with a women-in-general group composed of professional women.

How Good Is the SVIB at Prediction?

In addition to knowing how well the inventory distinguishes the interests of women, the counselor also wants to know how well it predicts the implementation of these interests.

Nolting (1970) chose as the criterion the academic major graduated in. Unfortunately, he used a circular process to examine predictivity. He selected 316 women who had graduated from 8 to 10 years previously in home economics education, occupational therapy, library science, social work, and medicine and then looked at their prematriculation SVIB scores on the appropriate occupational scales. He found that on the precollege SVIB, majors' scores on the appropriate scale were significantly different from nonmajors' on the home economics teacher, occupational therapy, and physician scales, but not on the library science or social worker scales. Nolting concluded that the former three academic majors can be predicted from SVIB scores. A more accurate conclusion is that some SVIB scales distinguish among academic majors. To judge predictive validity, one would have to know how many women with high scores on these same scales of the prematriculation SVIB did *not* graduate in the appropriate major.

In another study of predictive validity, Harmon (1969) worked with the criterion of "usual occupation" rather than "current occupation," reasoning that many women would answer "housewife" or "none" if asked to state their current occupation. She selected for study 169 women whose SVIB blanks had been rated A on social work and 125 whose blanks had been rated A on lab technician 10 to 14 years earlier. When asked to state their "usual occupation" (whether working in that field currently or not), only 39 percent of the social workers and 36 percent of the lab technicians responded with the names of the occupa-

tion appropriate to their SVIB scores. Forty-four percent and 40 percent, respectively, professed no "usual occupation." Those reporting a "usual occupation" constituted a group called "career committed"; those who claimed no "usual occupation" were called the "homemaker" subgroup. There was no way of differentiating between the career and homemaker subgroups on the basis of their SVIB profiles. The housewife, academic achievement, and M-F scales, which might be expected to differentiate between career and homemaker subgroups, did not do so. Of those in the "career committed" subgroup, 70 percent of the social workers and 61 percent of the lab technicians responded appropriately when asked for their usual occupation. Predictive validity among the "career committed" was about equal to the validity of the men's form, but it was impossible to predict which women would develop career commitment. Predictive validity was higher when Harmon used "college major enrolled in" as a criterion. Sixty-three percent of those in the social worker group and 56 percent of those with A and B+ ratings on the laboratory technician scale enrolled in college majors consistent with their scores of their initial testing as freshmen.

Stone and Athelstan (1969) reported no predictive validity at all when they tested selected SVIB scales as possible predictors of "job tenure." The blanks of 198 occupational therapists were analyzed on SVIB Experimental Scale No. 2 and on the occupational therapist, college physical education teacher, social worker, and housewife scales. Those of 255 physical therapists were analyzed on the lawyer, music teacher, speech pathologist, math-science teacher, social worker, and housewife scales and on the experimental scale. None of the SVIB scales selected showed significant correlations with this criterion.

Results of these studies of predictive validity indicate that scores prior to ma-

triculation predicted some majors enrolled in moderately well. SVIB scores were not predictive of "usual occupation," career commitment, or job tenure.

CONCLUSIONS FOR THE COUNSELOR

On the basis of these recent studies of the SVIB, one must echo the conclusion of Super and Crites made 10 years ago:

The women's form of the SVIB is not as satisfactory as the men's, because of the commonness of one interest factor in women; it is only in the cases of those with clear-cut career interests that it is likely to prove valuable [Super & Crites 1962, p. 454].

Despite its shortcomings, the SVIB-W is still often recommended by investigators in the field because, one can only suppose, it is the best among currently available tests. If an interest inventory can only distinguish clear-cut career interests and is not able to differentiate the interests of the majority of women, it is unlikely to be of use in most counseling situations. ■

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INVITED COMMENT:

Women Deserve Better

DAVID P. CAMPBELL

Huth has not written a particularly good review of the current status of the women's Strong. The coverage of recent literature is weak, the discussion of important issues is superficial, and there are no suggested solutions for the problems raised.

CRITICISMS OF THE REVIEW

The most notable omission from the literature review is any mention of the extensive data and discussion on women's interests presented in the *Handbook for the Strong Vocational Interest Blank* (Campbell 1971), even though this 516-page source book was published over a year before Huth's review was submitted to the JOURNAL. Although there is a certain indelicacy in criticizing an author for not citing my work, in this case there is some justification because the *Handbook* is the basic reference for the

women's SVIB. It has been favorably reviewed in this journal (Zytowski 1972), in *Contemporary Psychology* (Layton 1972), and in the Buros *Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Krauskopf 1972). The *Handbook* contains vocational interest data collected in 1966–68 from 14,027 adult women in 52 different occupations as well as containing scores on the SVIB Basic Interest Scales for 89 samples of women, including virtually every sample ever tested for research purposes since 1933. Further, the book contains a discussion of the changes in women's interests over the last 30 years and a series of case studies on the use of the Strong with women, prepared by Lenore Harmon of the University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee, a leading expert on vocational interest measurement and counseling women. Although my comments in the *Handbook* on women's interests may not be completely enlightened, they are an advance over my earlier writings, and since the *Handbook's* publication, both I and the SVIB publisher, Stanford University Press, have raised our level of awareness even more.

The second criticism I have of Huth's review is that the discussion of the issues is superficial. The author's major conclusion is that the data for women looks different from the data for men and that therefore the inventory must be at fault. As a quick glance through the *Handbook* will show, the women's form was developed in precisely the same manner as was the men's, and its psychometric characteristics—validity, reliability, intercorrelations, and so on—are virtually identical to those of the men's form. Yet, as Huth suggests, the inventory does sometimes produce different results when used in research studies with women. She concludes, for reasons that are not

clear to me, that the peculiarity lies in the inventory, not in the samples being studied. I would suggest that the problem lies in our inadequate understanding of the role of vocational interests in the career development of women. Data is data, and criticizing the measuring instrument is no solution. Throwing out the bathroom scale is no way to solve a problem of obesity.

I don't wish to get picky on small points, but Huth reaches some other conclusions that are mysterious to me. For example, she says, "Neither [the SVIB nor the Kuder] has been extensively investigated with women. . . ." Then, in the next sentence, she says, "Since 1965, studies using the SVIB women's form . . . have more than doubled, from 76 to 168. . . ." If 90 studies conducted over a seven-year period—an average of one per month—don't qualify as extensive investigation, one wonders what does.

Women report different vocational interests from men, no matter how the interests are assessed. One of the differences is that there is more homogeneity (i.e., more agreement) among female than male interests. A second difference is that males and females select different occupations when asked to do so on interest inventories.

Both of these trends appeared when two junior high classes were tested in 1972 with a new form of the Strong that is being developed for both sexes. Listed in Table 1 are the 5 most popular occupations for each sex in each grade. The number given is the percentage of the sample that responded "Like" to the item, as opposed to "Indifferent" or "Dislike." Although this was the crudest possible way to analyze these responses, the two common male-female trends still appeared. The girls were more homogeneous, as indicated by the greater agreement on the popular items, and the content of the choices was quite different for the two sexes. Whether these differences are viewed as good or

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TABLE 1

Occupations According to Popularity with Each Sex and Grade

Eighth Grade Boys (N=81)		Eighth Grade Girls (N=76)		Ninth Grade Boys (N=91)		Ninth Grade Girls (N=108)	
Occupation	% Respond- ing "Like"	Occupation	% Respond- ing "Like"	Occupation	% Respond- ing "Like"	Occupation	% Respond- ing "Like"
Autor racer	65	Children's clothes designer	76	Professional athlete	66	Elementary school teacher	75
Jet pilot	57	Interior decorator	68	Auto racer	65	Interior decorator	71
Cartoonist	57	Fashion model	66	Auto mechanic	62	Steward/Stewardess	69
Professional athlete	53	Costume designer	64	Jet pilot	52	Manager, child care center	66
Inventor	51	Steward/Stewardess	64	Mechanical engineer	51	Fashion model	58

bad requires a value judgment, but their empirical existence is indisputable. I wish Huth had grappled with that hard fact.

Some issues that she does raise are straw men; one of them is the career woman versus homemaker comparison. This is a distinction that is not useful in working with research data because the terms are so frequently inaccurate. Many "homemakers" have intense careers, although they are not paid employees. Politicians' wives, wives of small businessmen, farm wives, or ministers' wives, for example, are heavily involved in occupational activities where the career belongs to the couple, not to the individual. This concept of "couple career" has never been studied in vocational interests, even though it is an important type of occupational behavior.

A cynic might protest that "couple career" is just another euphemism for chauvinism, another way for the male to earn the recognition and for the female to work hard, be exploited, and in the end have nothing to show for it. These charges are certainly true in some cases, and I am not suggesting that all women —or all men—are happy in such arrangements. Yet there are some women who thrive and develop a genuine sense of career fulfillment while nominally titled "homemaker." Lady Bird Johnson, in her marvelous book *A White House Diary*

(1971), conveys the sense of a woman, significant in her own right, who still worries about whether her husband will be late to dinner and whether he will complain about her overspending the grocery budget. Lumping such women together into one big domestic cluster wipes out a lot of valid variance.

Conversely, many women with jobs are, like many men, really just employees with no burning passion for a career. They work because they have to. In a survey of several hundred 45-year-old college educated women in the 1960's (Rossmann & Campbell 1965), it was found that the most important determinant of whether each woman surveyed worked or not was the level of her husband's income, which suggests that the major difference between those working and those not working was *not* some variation of the career woman versus homemaker theme; rather, it was mainly an economic factor.

Another problem cluster consists of those women with "typical homemaker" interest profiles who are employed full time in jobs they find quite satisfying, usually in such occupations as dietician, home economics teacher, or similar ones stressing the domestic arts. Clustering them together with career women— which they certainly are—muddies up the statistics of career versus homemaker interest profiles.

Huth makes no recommendations or even suggestions about what we should do now. If there are problems in measuring women's vocational interests, what new approaches should be tried?

THE UNISEX STRONG

One improvement currently under way is the combination of the male and female forms of the Strong into a single inventory. For almost 40 years two forms have existed: one for men and another for women. The items in the booklets have differed somewhat, as have the profile forms. Since this dual system might perpetuate outdated sexual stereotypes, the inventories are being merged, and within the next year or so a new version suitable for both men and women will be published. One booklet, combining the best items from the current men's and women's form, will be used, and one profile, containing all scales for both sexes, will be provided. Each respondent, man or woman, will be scored on all scales, male and female, although some normative adjustments will have to be made for the opposite sex scales.

With this new system, males will be asked to respond to items such as "Trying new recipes," "Doing your own laundry work," and "Being the first to wear the latest fashions." Women will be asked for their reactions to "Adjusting a carburetor," "Boxing," and "Chasing bandits in a sheriff's posse." For the first time, direct comparisons between the sexes will be possible, and this should lead to a better understanding of the differences and similarities between them. Some of this has already been done using preliminary samples with the new inventory, and one peculiar finding has emerged: When the entire battery of empirical scales is applied to both sexes, virtually everyone scores higher on some of the scales for the opposite sex than they do on scales for their own sex. The apparent explanation for this is compli-

cated and can perhaps best be understood by drawing an analogy from physical measurement.

Assume that scales were developed to measure the physical types of basketball player and jockey. A scale for each type would be developed for each sex. When both sexes are scored on all scales, many men will score artificially high on the women's basketball player scale because most men are taller than most women, and most women will score artificially high on the male jockey scale, because most women are lighter than most men. Consequently, virtually everyone will score higher on an opposite sex scale than on his or her own. The same phenomenon has appeared in the interest scales; men are scoring higher than women on the most mechanically oriented female scales, such as radiologic technician, and women are scoring higher than men on the most artistically oriented male scales, such as artist. Learning to unravel such paradoxes, first in research and later in clinical settings, should increase our understanding of the sexes.

Another change planned for the new profile is the rearrangement of the occupational scales into the classification system suggested by Holland (in press). Holland's six categories correspond well to the traditional groups on the SVIB profile, and his system has the considerable advantage of being more explicitly detailed. Thus, his categories have some surplus meaning over and above the usual operational definition "You have interests similar to. . . ." Using these categories will give the Strong a theoretical orientation that it has never had before, which will be helpful in interpreting profiles as well as in guiding further research.

The merging of the two inventories is a specific, practical improvement, but many important philosophic problems are still unresolved. Some of them are:

• What are the sources of the substantial

differences in vocational interests between males and females?

• Can, and should, efforts be made to eradicate these differences? If so, how?

• As long as the differences currently exist, how should they be accommodated?

• How can we formulate a theory that will help us understand and thus facilitate the interplay between female interests, careers, and marriage?

Our lack of understanding of such questions leaves us at the mercy of barren statistical data and encourages the kind of retreat from reality suggested by Huth when she concludes that because interest inventories don't work the same way for women as for men, they should be abandoned. We cannot arbitrarily choose which psychological data we wish to believe and which we wish to ignore; we have to deal with the world as it is. If we wish to change it, we will almost certainly be more successful if we start from established fact rather than comfortable fiction. The fact that men and women show some differences does not distress me so much as the fact that we seem so incapable of dealing with those differences in ways that are not repressive to either sex. ■

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YOUR FATHER'S OVERCOAT

The newness of your manhood
does not quite fit your self.
Just like your father's overcoat,
Remember?

Too heavy at the shoulders,
the shade a bit too grim,
in a style your years had envied
and could not wait to wear.

But you can't shrug it off at will
and toss it on a chair
or hang it on the coat hook
in the corner of your room.
It's an overcoat that's sewed onto your skin.

Now you want to cry.
Your tears are at the brim;
but the collar chokes them off.
Men don't shed tears;
not on their fathers' overcoats
they don't.

Sally A. Felker

STATISTICS

Statistics force humility
as statisticians can show
in their explanation of average:
Half of everyone falls below.

Sally A. Felker
Hiram College
Hiram, Ohio

The case for guidance: testimony before Congress

WILLIAM J. ERPENBACH

The author, as a member of APGA's Federal Relations Committee, recently presented testimony on counseling and guidance services before the U.S. House of Representatives' Subcommittee on Labor, Health, Education and Welfare and Related Agencies. This testimony, on behalf of APGA and ASCA, concerned fiscal year 1973 appropriations for the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III (ESEA, III)—Counseling, Guidance and Testing. This article is drawn from the author's testimony and is directed toward reporting some of the positive outcomes of counseling and guidance, the dilemma of cutbacks in services, and the need for substantial expansion of fiscal and personal support for counseling and guidance.

School counselors in our nation have established themselves as essential, contributing members in the educational effort. Having school counselors and guidance programs in our schools is making a positive difference to young people, to school curriculums, and to local communities. The substantial federal, state, and local dollars appropriated for guidance since the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) of 1958, Title V-A, have made a difference. The following are cited to illustrate some of the outcomes of school counseling and guidance services.

POSITIVE OUTCOMES OF SERVICES

Progress in Education:
A Sample Survey (1960–1970)

This is a December 1971 report from the American Institutes for Research, Palo Alto, California (Flanagan & Jung 1971), which concerns the most recent report on Project TALENT. Project TALENT is a national longitudinal study of the effects of personal, educational, and social influence on career development. The present report compares 1960 and 1970 high school pupils.

Citing "an improvement in the effectiveness of the guidance programs in the high schools [p. 13]," the Project TALENT report reminds us that high school pupils in 1960 showed dissatisfaction with their school programs and with what they considered unrealistic educational and occupational programs. Since 1960 the number of school counseling and guidance programs including professionally qualified school counselors has increased dramatically. A recent Bureau of Labor Statistics (1971) release reports 54,000 elementary and secondary school counselors presently employed in our schools (p. 67). According to the Project TALENT report, in 1970:

"With respect to educational plans, 61 percent of the boys and 55 percent of the girls expect to obtain some regular college training. This represents only a 1 percent increase for the boys, but a 10 percent increase for the girls. The numbers of boys and girls planning other types of post-high-school training also show increases so that only 14 percent

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of the boys and 15 percent of the girls indicate they do not expect to get any education beyond high school. This represents a substantial drop from the 28 percent and 29 percent who indicated such expectations in 1960 [p. 14]."

"There is a trend, especially for the girls, to discuss plans for after high school with school counselors to a greater extent. . . . On the other hand, there is a definite trend for less discussion of plans after high school with teachers and principals [p. 15]."

There was a change in the occupational preferences of females from 1960 to 1970, according to the report. An increasing number chose careers in the social sciences, more females training to become social workers, police officers, biological scientists, and psychologists. There was also a trend among females away from the traditional female jobs (nurse, secretary, beautician) and toward professionally relevant and a broader spectrum of socially relevant jobs (pp. 15–16).

The report states that career plans for boys are clearly more realistic. The effectiveness of the guidance programs can be mirrored, at least for boys, in the quality of pupils taking various courses or in the quality of curriculums offered by the high schools. The enrollment in various courses reflects more realistic pupil expectations for themselves (pp. 16–17).

Emergency School Assistance Program

Recently the Resource Management Corporation, Inc., acting under a contract with the U.S. Office of Education, released the results of an evaluation of the effectiveness of first-year Emergency School Assistance Program (ESAP) grants in improving the racial climate of selected school districts. The evidence was gathered from a sample of 879 schools in 252 school districts in 14 southern states. The results of this study also underscore the definite effectiveness of school guidance and counseling services. Among the major findings were (Evans 1972):

"ESAP activities in counseling, counseling support, student programs, and remedial programs were significantly associated with positive racial climate changes [p. 1]." Yet these areas accounted for only 23 percent of the total expenditures for the program.

"Higher ESAP expenditures per student spent on counseling programs were associated with more positive racial change than lower expenditures [p. 6]."

"The more effective activities (counseling, counseling support, student programs, and remedial programs) gained effectiveness the longer they had been implemented [p. 6]."

American College Testing Program

A news release from the University of Minnesota (1971) reports that entering students at that institution rely heavily on their high school counselors in making post-high-school plans, according to self-reports on the American College Tests. Students reported that they felt it was through personal contact with high school counselors that they received the critical information for decision making, particularly regarding making college choice decisions. This experience at the University of Minnesota is undoubtedly similar to that of numerous other higher education institutions.

Pupil Opinions

In most of our nation's schools, counselors occasionally undertake studies of the way others—pupils, parents, teachers, etc.—perceive their services. The results of many of these studies are typified by the recent experience at Washington Irving Junior High School, a school of 1,700 pupils in Colorado Springs, Colorado. The counselor-pupil ratio in the school is 1 to 500. Pupils there said that they had a positive reaction toward the guidance personnel and program.

Pupils knew who the counselors were and had been talking to them. The pupils saw the counselor as someone who cared and was interested in helping them, was a listener, could be trusted, was cheerful, kept secrets, and would talk with any pupil for any reason. Pupils wanted more help with understanding the way they acted, with working out plans for the future, in understanding problems, and in understanding themselves (J. P. Tatum, Jr., personal communication, 20 March 1972).

Career Education

Presently the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) has as one of its major thrusts a program to advance career education in our schools. An essential component of career education is career development, an area in which school counselors contribute much to youth. The importance of the role of guidance and counseling services is reflected in recent USOE actions.

Speaking before a large group of school counselor officers and leaders in Chicago in March 1972, Robert Worthington, USOE Associate Commissioner of Education, stated that career education cannot succeed without quality counseling and guidance programs. He further noted that school counseling and guidance services have been designated as major objectives of the USOE for fiscal year 1973. It has also been recently announced by USOE that a unit on career education, counseling and guidance, and

placement will be formed in that agency in the near future.

Public Polls

A 1970 Gallup Poll reports on the status of education (Gallup 1970). One of the questions asked in this nationwide survey of public attitudes was: "How do you feel about having guidance [school] counselors in the public schools? Do you think they are worth the added cost?" The reactions of the 1,592 adults and 299 11th and 12th graders on the national sample are summarized in Table 1.

The State of Wisconsin has received the final report of its Governor's Commission on Education. This commission undertook in 1969–70 an exhaustive investigation of all aspects of education in the state. Among the principal observations of the commission were:

"If there has been a single proposal that has recurred in each task force and been widely endorsed by student participants, it has been for strengthened counseling and guidance. Throughout this report, the Commission recommends structures to help extend counseling services throughout the system, but, as in teacher education, greater visibility is necessary. An actual network of career guidance and personal counseling is essential if Wisconsin students are to obtain educational experience that will keep up with their needs and changing capabilities.

"A particularly vital need is for coun-

TABLE 1

Opinions about Guidance Services

Responses	National Totals %	Parents with No Children in School %	Parents with Children in Public School %	Parents with Children in Parochial School %	High School Juniors and Seniors %
Yes, worth it	73	69	79	79	83
No, not worth it	16	17	14	12	16
No opinion	11	14	7	9	1

seling of students not bound toward four-year college programs. In a survey conducted by one task force, 21 teams of trained volunteers visited 16 Wisconsin communities. The results of the survey show that parents urged more attention be given to work preparation for secondary students; parents also supported emphasis on guidance toward post-secondary vocational and technical education. The Commission proposes that the public education system respond swiftly to this demonstrable need [*A Forward Look* 1970, p. 70]."

Similar results were found in Minnesota and New York studies.

Numerous other reports, studies, and articles support the positive effect made by the investment in school counseling and guidance services. School guidance programs are indeed on the very cutting edge of rapid social and occupational change, especially as such changes affect the future planning and decision making of our youth. The rate of change seems to accelerate annually. The counseling and guidance required to meet the needs of our young people is becoming more complex and more demanding, but it is succeeding in meeting those needs.

THE DILEMMA OF CUTBACKS IN SERVICES

In spite of mounting evidence pointing to the good achieved by school counseling and guidance efforts and to the need for expanded and strengthened guidance services to better meet the unique developmental needs of the young, we are all too often faced with a lessening of fiscal support for guidance services at the federal, state, and local levels. For example, the actual purchasing power of the dollars available for counseling and guidance services today under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III, is significantly less than that available five years ago under NDEA, Title V-A. The rapid growth of school guidance programs that took place during the sixties has ceased.

Almost without exception, states have not initiated categorical support programs for the schools for guidance and counseling. Local school districts faced with fiscal crisis after fiscal crisis are, as a first means of slashing their budgets, reducing the number of school counselors employed. The city of Chicago is a tragic example of this. On 1 February 1972, the Chicago Board of Education made the following reduction in its services to pupils as a means of solving the budget problems of the Chicago public schools:

● Elimination of 212 adjustment teachers (analogous to elementary guidance personnel). This was a 50 percent cut in such staffing.

● Elimination of 75 (of the 389) counselor positions at the senior high school level. The ghetto schools were hit hardest.

● Elimination of 14 (of the 17) area consultant/supervisors in guidance.

● Elimination of 9 (of the 10) central office consultant/supervisors of guidance.

● Elimination of the census and counseling program (for dropouts) within the Urban Youth program.

● Elimination of counseling and placement program in high mobility areas.

● Elimination of the Higher Education Guidance Center. This center had increased the number of disadvantaged youth going to college by 10 percent in 1970–71.

Other positions for consultants in curriculum and high school and elementary school assistant principals were also eliminated, as were a host of temporary positions and some custodial and other support service positions. But in the crucial, direct service to youth—professional areas—pupil personnel services and guidance and counseling were hit the hardest, with a $5,226,791 reduction (McDonough 1972).

Other school districts across the na-

tion, large and small, have been forced to take similar actions. The paradox, though, is that such actions appear to be contrary to the public's wishes and needs.

In another survey (Gallup 1971), a question asked of 1,562 adults and 229 junior and senior high school pupils was: "Suppose your local school board were 'forced' to cut some things from school costs because there is not enough money." The sixth most popular suggestion for a means of reducing school costs was: "Reduce the number of counselors on the staff." Nearly one-third of the respondents were in favor of this suggestion, while 49 percent were opposed and 19 percent had no opinion. The most popular suggestion (50 percent favorable) was: "Reduce the number of administrative personnel." Second in popularity was: "Cancel any [academic] subjects that do not have the minimum number of students registered." Third was: "Have the school run on a 12-month basis with 3-month vacations for students, one-month for teachers." Among high school juniors and seniors, 70 percent were not in favor of reducing the number of counselors while 28 percent were and 2 percent had no opinion.

But the realism of the present fiscal condition in the public schools of this nation has to be taken into consideration. The rising cost of educating our young *is* forcing a reduction in the services provided in our schools. Anyone who does not meet with a specified number of pupils for a specified number of hours daily in a classroom relationship is all too often viewed as expendable. The outcomes of having or not having services such as counseling and guidance are usually not a consideration for determining which services are cut and which are retained during a fiscal crisis; only the dollars available to meet expenses are considered. School counselors are most vulnerable in these times of fiscal crises, because counseling and guid-

ance does not adequately lend itself to a "systems" or large group approach. Counseling is a system that works best in one-to-one or small group relationships. As such, it is truly a "people program" worthy of saving, worthy of maintaining, and worthy of expanding significantly.

MORE SERVICES NEEDED—NOT FEWER

When one examines, in terms of what our youth and their parents are asking for, what the expenditures for counseling and guidance services have done for American youth and what they could do, a strong case can be made for increasing rather than decreasing the support of these services. The states are using their limited funds for such things as the development of counseling and guidance services to support the initiation of occupational and educational information systems for pupils and counselors, vocational development series for broadcast on television, professional publications for school counselors, and workshops and inservice activities. Often these projects are being supported by a combination of local, state, and federal funding sources. But there is much, much more that needs to be done.

What else might be achieved with increased support for counseling and guidance? How would the funds be used? They would perhaps be used to provide the staff and resources to be more responsive to pupils in inner-core schools with counselor-pupil ratios of 1 to 700 or more, where thousands need to find just one person who will listen to them— someone who cares just a little and is willing to try to help them escape the street and its temptations, help them break out of the poverty cycle; someone who will try to meet the vocational guidance needs of a rural boy or girl in a high school of 150 pupils who decides not to stay on the farm; someone who will help pupils in grades K through 8 to *develop* vocational and educational

decision making skills, skills that will enable them to handle the fact that they may finish school in an era when people may be paid not to work and an era when they may face, according to some U.S. Department of Labor projections, seven or more major vocation changes in their working lives. And there are other needs to be met, each equally important.

The counseling of girls is a critical guidance challenge to be met. Women are increasingly assuming dual careers—that of career woman and homemaker, mother and wife. Girls have special counseling needs, many of which we are not yet able to meet. The Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor is providing a wealth of documentation regarding this matter. Girls' talents, in whatever field, must be permitted to develop to the optimum. Counselors working with teachers and parents, as well as with girls, can help girls realize that they can qualify and then help them to prepare themselves with appropriate course-work so that they do qualify to meet the needs of our society.

Information systems could be substantially improved with increased fiscal support. Counselors need accurate, current information to help pupils make wise educational and vocational decisions. The technological advances of our society and the knowledge explosion have created a fantastic information gap in counseling pupils, information so vital to good personal, educational, and vocational decision making.

Training opportunities to prepare persons to enter the field of counseling and guidance and to strengthen the qualifications of those in the field need to be expanded monumentally. These opportunities were previously provided for under the auspices of NDEA, Title V-B. Now training institutes for guidance personnel are supposed to be provided through the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA). The list of

short- and long-range institutes for 1971–72 showed extremely limited training programs designed to serve the needs of the counseling and guidance profession. Yet projections, as gathered from the practical estimations of the states, indicate that we will need 21,000 *more* school counselors and 23,000 *replacements* for school counselors by 1980 (Bureau of Labor Statistics 1971, p. 67). It appears that we can expect to find about one-half the counselors needed to fill these positions in 1980.

In February 1972, 5.4 million persons were unemployed, or 5.7 percent of a work force of 88.1 million (Unemployment Statistics . . . 1972). Such periods of high unemployment also illustrate all too tragically the great need for counseling and guidance programs in our nation. During such times people must increasingly look to those who can give them capable assistance to make meaningful educational and vocational decisions. In the high schools, counselors can help pupils become aware of the various pathways to these decisions.

The instability of the labor market and confusion over the technological impact on the world of work are mirrored in the eyes of today's high school pupils. A talk with high school juniors and seniors will often identify those pupils who are planning to drop out of the educational scene for a year or two after high school graduation so that they can "look things over," and these are often pupils who rank in the top 10 percent of their high school classes. One of the major reasons for this appears to be that many youth are extremely confused about their future. They are overwhelmed by the adult world, and they don't always have a school counselor or similarly trained adult available to help them make the transition. It's part of the price we didn't plan to pay when we began to mechanize American society. Guidance must be available to help pupils become aware of alternatives in

meaningful vocational, educational, and personal-social decisions.

There are, of course, other concerns and needs that could be met through the provision of adequate counseling and guidance programs, for example: parent programs, which would help lessen the generation gap; pupil militancy programs, in which the counselor would interpret the system to the pupil and the pupil to the system; drug abuse programs, in which the counselor would understand the problem and be willing to help the student seek necessary assistance; and dropout programs, in which the counselor would be the key to students' completing their education—the estimated 1,000,000 young people who each year leave school before high school graduation.

A CLOSING CHALLENGE

Support levels for counseling and guidance cannot be reduced or merely maintained in this increasingly complex society. Never before has there been such need for new approaches to solving educational dilemmas and providing for better adjustment of people. Drug problems, automation, depersonalization of society, and joblessness all point to the need for more emphasis on the purposes of quality counseling and guidance programs. Massive funding of these services is needed. In our nation's present state of rapid occupational and social change, the school counselor serves a key role as an agent for facilitating change. Expanded guidance services are needed as never before. To reduce or eliminate support would truly be false economy,

resulting in a need for more costly welfare, correctional, and remedial programs to overcome mistakes that could have been prevented with adequate guidance services. In light of the clear, positive contributions to the educational effort being made by school counseling services and the unmet needs of so many of our young people, it doesn't make much sense to talk about reducing school guidance services. ∎

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GROW: An Experience
for College Freshmen

KENNETH R. FELKER

The era of one-to-one, short-term crisis counseling as the primary mode of treatment on the college campus seems to be coming to a close. Increasingly college counselors are finding themselves drawn into broader roles that encompass educative, growth-promoting, and preventive functions. They are choosing, or are being asked by students and staff, to assume a more active role in the total educational program of the college community. The program described in this article is an illustration of one type of involvement that counseling center staffs can have.

Many college counselors have expressed the view that if students could only get off to a good start at college and develop a sense of assurance and direction, a number of potential problems could be alleviated. The transition from high school to college is both exciting and threatening for many, traumatic for some, and a critical part of adjustment for all. The smoothness of the transition is most often determined by the student's ability or inability to form meaningful relationships, to make decisions concerning courses of study and career choices, and to test skills in a new environment. Finally, the transition usually involves the student's experiencing value conflicts concerning identity. If the transition process goes well, the way is paved for further achievement. If not, the college experience could prove less than beneficial and could in fact contribute to the student's serious personal and educational maladjustment.

It was the recognition of the need for a more extensive and intensive kind of orientation to college life that led to the design of a course that would serve to fulfill several needs of new students. Since a course requires a title, this experience was called "Grow," for the concept of growing as a person in a total sense embodies the broadest goals of the experience.

THE COURSE DESIGN

The design of the course was based on three questions of critical importance to young people: Who am I, where am I going, and how am I getting there? In attending to these questions, we took into account the personal-social, educational, and vocational aspects of college student development—in other words, the total person. Each of the separate experiences that were integrated into the total program was selected because of its value in providing the student with needed information about himself, his new environment, and his future.

The experience was offered to freshmen in the form of a credit-bearing course and proved to be the most popular freshman course within the new curriculum recently initiated at Hiram College. The size of each class was limited to 12 students, and classes were held for

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two hours twice a week during the 10-week term; often, however, the enthusiasm of the members carried the meetings beyond that limit. In a very real sense, the students functioned as a personal growth group.

A brief description of the course structure and content was circulated among freshmen students prior to registration. The participants were aware of the fact that the course was to be a group oriented experience; expectations were therefore somewhat clarified prior to the first formal meeting. The twofold intent of the design was to (a) incorporate techniques and procedures that have proven effective in counseling and (b) attend to issues that are of particular concern to new students.

The leadership of a course of this type is obviously an extremely important consideration, for the success or failure of the experience will rest on the skill with which the leader involves the students personally and interpersonally. It is a role best assumed by a counselor-teacher who has experience in conducting student groups and is able to achieve a rapport with groups of young people. Since most college counseling staffs have group counseling specialists, selecting a leader should not present a problem.

The involvement of counseling center staff in the teaching role has decided advantages. It allows the students an opportunity to become involved with counseling personnel and thus provides them with a clearer perspective of the breadth and possibilities of counseling. Furthermore, it tends to remove some of the mystery surrounding counseling and helps to eliminate, where it still remains, a large share of the stigma associated with seeking counseling assistance.

THE COURSE OUTLINE

Following is an outline of the course, along with the specific experiences involved. The course requirements included readings from *Toward Self-Understanding* (Grebstein 1969), *Experiencing Youth* (Goethals & Klos 1970), and *Reaching Out* (Johnson 1972).

Week 1

Session 1: Introduction. Members were introduced, and there was an explanation of the group format, procedures, and assignments for the term. The group members agreed to attend all sessions, comply with the assignment of writing a comprehensive autobiography, and share a creative endeavor.

Session 2: My First Day on Campus. The group discussed the hopes and fears they experienced on their first day as college students. The goal of the session was clarification of individual expectations.

Week 2

Session 1: How I See Myself; How Others See Me. A semantic differential was employed to facilitate this experience. Students shared their initial impressions of each other. The session was designed to aid students in recognizing the impact they had on their peers and help them develop clearer self-concepts.

Session 2: The Most and Least of Me. Students discussed their strengths and weaknesses. This exercise was an excellent follow-up to the prior sessions, for it caused each member to look more deeply into himself and further clarify his self-concepts.

An overall objective of the first two weeks was the development of a feeling of trust among group members, thus establishing an effective basis for group functioning.

Week 3

Two Sessions: Objective Me. Group members discussed the results of four inventories that had been previously administered to them, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, the Allport Study of Values, the Edwards Personal Prefer-

ence Schedule, and the Self-Esteem Inventory. These instruments had been selected because they provided objective insight into the areas that are of special concern to beginning students. The group leader interpreted the test results to each of the students in a private session. Following this, the group as a whole talked about the information they had gained through the experience, discussing how it related to their vocational planning and their personal-social development.

Week 4

Two Sessions: Achievement. The discussion of achievement needs, expectations, and frustrations was the focus for these two sessions. Achievement motivation concepts were also discussed and employed.

Week 5

Two Sessions: Creativity. The group members shared their creative endeavors, as each member of the group performed or demonstrated some aspect of his personal creativity. A wide variety of talents was displayed, including musical, poetic, and dramatic. The purposes of this venture were to (a) help students explore and recognize their creativity and (b) enable them to be in touch with the feeling of sharing a part of themselves through a creative means of expression.

Week 6

Session 1: Informal Communication Skills. Communicating effectively on a friendly, social basis was the central topic. Factors that facilitated and hampered communication among friends were discussed and demonstrated.

Session 2: Formal Communication Skills. The major consideration in this session was communication in more formal situations, such as classroom discussions and presentations. Each group member was responsible for presenting a short speech, which was followed by im-

mediate feedback from the group and from an expert in the field of communication who attended the session.

Week 7

Two Sessions: How to Study Effectively. This experience centered around effective approaches to studying. Students shared their study problems and their ideas on ways to manage study habits to meet academic expectations. Various methods for improving study habits were explored through discussion and reading.

Week 8

Two Sessions: Campus Morality. Group members had already begun to experience value conflicts in areas such as drugs, sex, and religion. The identification and reclarification of values, as well as the ambivalence experienced during this process, were shared.

Week 9

Two Sessions: Inspiration Day. Group members shared personal experiences that had had inspirational value for them. It was interesting to see that in all cases the experiences involved other people rather than events, books, etc., thus exemplifying the importance of knowing how to formulate relationships.

Week 10

Two Sessions: Personal Conferences and Course Evaluation. The group leader met with the total group to ensure closure. He also met with each group member individually to discuss the student's individual growth during the quarter.

EVALUATION

Perhaps the most cogent evaluation of such an experience is that drawn from the participants. The following excerpt from a poem contributed as an evaluation of the course by one of the members expresses the feeling shared by the group.

It can be done
you see we really don't need the games at all
Not once we've touched the real
And we had it
It came in a moment
so damn refreshingly real
The childlike truth
When to share is enough
and friendship is what it's all about

My experiences in conducting the course during the past year were extremely positive. The students' responses to the experiences were likewise highly favorable. Although self-selection was the basis for inclusion in the group and no control for academic achievement was exercised, it is interesting to note that the achievement level of students who took

part in the course has been consistently above the average for freshmen on campus. It is difficult to assess how much the course experience has contributed to their level of adjustment; in their own view, it would seem to have had a significant impact in terms of helping them understand themselves, their goals, and their relationships with other students. ■

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Job Placement: Organize and Advertise

EUGENE W. HIPP

There are many benefits to be gained by establishing a vital, functioning, part-time job placement service in a high school. In addition to giving students an opportunity to earn money while in school and meeting the needs of employers in the community, such a placement service provides the following occupational orientation for students: (a) experience in filling out a comprehensive job application form; (b) experience in being involved in job interviews; and (c) experience in working in a variety of occupations, which can often give a student an idea about what kinds of occupations he does or does not want in the future.

We succeeded in establishing a part-time job placement service in our school in the spring of 1972, and I would like to share with readers what I consider a most worthwhile experience.

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First of all, it is generally assumed that part-time job placement is a regular function of the guidance department, and therefore such duties are automatically delegated to the counselor. But what does this mean? Usually it means that an employer who contacts the school seeking part-time help is immediately referred to the counselor, who then initiates a search—first through his files and then through the corridors—for a likely prospect. Needless to say, this can be time-consuming; for example, there is often insufficient information in the cumulative folder regarding the student's availability for work, his past work experience, and so forth, which then makes personal interviewing a necessity.

Further, the employers who do inquire are often a select few who are annual repeats on the school's list. But the fact is that there are numerous employers of all varieties in the community who have all kinds of jobs to offer; we have only to find ways to make contact with them and organize ourselves to make use of them. The key then is first to organize the placement service and then to make it known to the community through advertising.

Organizing the Service

• Create a fairly comprehensive job application form, making sure to request such vital information as availability for work, possession of a driver's license, skills, type of work wanted, past work experience, references, etc.

• Announce to students that you are starting a job placement service and that only those who fill out applications will be considered for jobs. After a sufficient number of applications have been returned, you are ready to advertise your service.

Advertising the Service

• Place an ad for your service in the want ad section of your local newspaper. Here's a sample: "We have a long list of high school students available for part-time work. References furnished. Call [counselor's name] at [school's name]."

• Ask to have a note on your service included in local church bulletins.

• Ask to be included in the local chamber of commerce bulletin.

Follow-Through

Once the word gets around that your school can furnish part-time help, you will start getting calls from prospective employers. The format for placement will then proceed basically as follows. After taking the information over the phone from the employer and inscribing

it onto a job order form, the counselor examines the student applications on file and from these selects a likely prospect. He then calls the student in and briefs him on the job. If the student is interested, the counselor arranges an interview either by calling the employer himself or allowing the student to call. The resulting action is then recorded on the job order form to keep tabs on the operation and to provide a basis for follow-up.

We have followed all these procedures at our school, and the outcome has been most gratifying. We placed some 30 youngsters in part-time jobs shortly after organizing in the spring and continued placing many students throughout the summer. The jobs included housecleaning, lawn care, painting, custodial work, babysitting, factory work, and farm work. We are now fully organized for the current school year.

I would recommend that high school counselors consider the possibility of establishing a part-time job placement service. Certainly many variations of the procedures described here can be devised and effectively implemented. Perhaps the strongest argument for making such an effort is that helping students find jobs is a very tangible service, the benefits of which are immediately evident to counselors and readily appreciated by students. ■

High School and College Share Test Results

W. PAUL JONES

ISAIAH L. SCOTT

In the rush to develop new testing programs for various special needs, something that is too often neglected is the possibility of using existing test data to provide the needed information. An ob-

vious example of a relatively untapped source in many school districts is the data provided by the sweep testing programs, where achievement and ability tests are administered at various grade levels to all students in the school district.

This article describes a project conducted jointly by guidance personnel at a high school and a two-year branch campus of a state university. The schools are located in a southwestern city with a population of approximately 25,000. As

would be expected, a significant proportion of the college campus enrollment is comprised of graduates from the local high school. The purpose of the project was to investigate the feasibility of using data from the existing high school testing program to enhance both academic and vocational guidance at the two institutions. Financial assistance for the project was provided by the New Mexico State Department of Vocational Education and the Primary Mental Abilities Tests Research Fund.

ACADEMIC GUIDANCE

The 9–12 level of the Science Research Associates' Primary Mental Abilities Tests (PMA) was administered in the fall to all students in grades 10 and 12 as a part of the regular high school testing program. This level of the PMA provides five scores: verbal, number, reasoning, spatial, and total. In the academic guidance phase of the project, 80 students were identified who (a) were tested with the PMA in the fall of 1970 as high school seniors and (b) completed the fall semester of 1971 as freshmen on the college campus.

We felt that a combination of the verbal and number ability scores would provide the best prediction of college performance. An additional PMA score, the Academic Index, was therefore derived for use in the project. The Academic Index was obtained by averaging the reported quotient scores for the verbal and number tests and developing a local stanine scale for this average score. College grade point average (GPA) for the students in the sample was obtained from college records, and a product moment correlation coefficient was calculated between the PMA Academic Index and the college GPA. The obtained correlation coefficient was .43, a level of relationship over a 14-month period of prediction that is consistent with reported coefficients for the standard college admission tests.

As a medium for communicating the test results to the students, the experience (expectancy) table seemed to be the appropriate tool. An experience chart was prepared that noted the percentage of students who attained a GPA of at least 2.0 (C) in each Academic Index scores category: high (stanine 7–9), average (stanine 4–6), or low (stanine 1–3). The percentage of students who attained a C average in each category was 87 percent, 58 percent, and 42 percent, respectively.

A further and essential step was to test the efficiency of the experience chart as a means of communicating test results. A copy of the single-page experience chart was provided to a sample of students in beginning psychology classes on the college campus, with instructions that the chart represented an interpretation of a test that had been taken earlier in the semester. The chart consisted of a short introductory paragraph, a report of the score, and the percentages of students attaining a GPA of at least 2.0 for the three categories. Each of the charts had an obtained score marked "Average." After having five minutes to read the chart, the students were given a multiple-choice test comprised of questions relating to the material on the experience chart. The questions were designed to assess students' understanding of (a) the test score itself, (b) the percentages for relationship of test score and GPA, and (c) the use that could be made of the information (such as suggesting courses of action for students with low scores, etc.). Mastery on the test was defined as an obtained score 100 percent above chance level. Using this criterion, 96 percent of the students in the beginning psychology classes attained a score indicating sufficient understanding of the ex-

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perience chart. This data, plus subjective feelings of guidance personnel at both institutions who have used the chart, suggests that the prepared experience chart is an effective vehicle for interpreting the relationship between the PMA score and academic performance on the college campus.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The purpose of this phase of the project was to investigate the feasibility of using the PMA scores to estimate predicted scores provided by the Science Research Associates' Vocational Planning Inventory (VPI). The VPI is a three-hour test battery that provides predictions of grades in academic, general vocational, and eight specific vocational areas for grades 11 to 13.

The VPI was administered to a representative sample of students in grades 10 and 12 in the spring of 1972. PMA scores were available for these students from the regular testing program conducted in the fall of 1971. Previous high school GPA's were obtained for each student in the sample from school records. An intercorrelation matrix was prepared for the 211 students for whom complete data was available (10 VPI scores, 5 PMA scores, and previous GPA).

A dual purpose guided the inspection of the matrix for relationships among the variables. An obvious purpose, of course, was to select variables that would maximize prediction of the VPI scores. However, since the focus of the project was on applied use of the results, an equally important objective was to minimize complexity. The derivation of an elegant, but complex, multiple regression formula that used a large number of variables would be of little practical value.

Given these dual objectives, an inspection of the data suggested that a combination of the total PMA score and previous GPA would provide the most efficient prediction of VPI scores. Multi-

ple correlation coefficients between the VPI scores and total PMA/previous GPA ranged from .42 to .71, with a median of .65.

As was noted in regard to academic guidance, the experience table was deemed the appropriate vehicle for communication of this data to the students. Double entry tables were prepared for each of the 10 VPI categories. The criterion used was the percentage of students with a VPI predicted grade of 2.0 or above. Previous GPA was divided into high, average, and low categories; PMA total score was divided into lower (local stanine 1–3) and upper (local stanine 4–9) categories. In addition to the advantage of ease of communication, using the experience charts instead of predicting a specific grade avoided a precision in prediction unwarranted by the data.

These experience charts are being used in the high school vocational guidance program. The percentage estimates based on VPI predicted grades will be validated against the actual grades obtained by students in the appropriate previous GPA and PMA categories.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this project suggest that existing test data from the regular school testing program can indeed be used to improve academic and vocational guidance activities. The data obtained from the school-district-mandated testing program provided a data bank from which experience charts were developed to improve the quality of guidance for both the college-bound and the vocationally oriented student. In fact, a distinct advantage of using the single test was that it provided an individual student with information that related his abilities to both college and vocational programs.

The innovation inherent in this project was obviously not in any sophisticated complexity of mathematical derivation.

The statistical procedures employed are probably in the repertoire of most professionals in the field of guidance. If innovation was evident, it was in the coöperation of the high school and college personnel in sharing data for mutual benefit and in the focus on attempting to make maximum use of available data before adding still another testing program to an already overcrowded schedule.

We do not mean to imply that novel approaches to gathering data should be abandoned. Certainly many facets of a student's characteristic behavior have yet to be effectively measured. We do, however, wish to stress our beliefs that existing data banks should be effectively used and that testing programs are justified only to the extent that they add unique information to the data already available. ■

Psychological Education: A Prime Function of the Counselor

Special Issue Coming in May

The counselor should sit in his office and wait for "sick" individuals to come trotting in with a list of readily categorizable symptoms. Right? Wrong, say Allen Ivey and Alfred Alschuler. In the May issue of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, which they have guest edited, they advocate a new definition of the counselor role: that of the psychological educator, who actively intervenes in the life of institutions—which may themselves be "sick"—and teaches healthy skills to others.

Psychological education. Affective education. Humanistic education. By whatever name it's known, this relatively new discipline is already providing important levers to help counselors increase their effectiveness. This Special Issue of P&G shows how. Articles are directed toward helping counselors, personnel workers, employment counselors, and rehabilitation counselors to draw on the psychological education movement. The articles provide a wealth of procedures, techniques, exercises, and games for the counselor who aspires to be a psychological educator.

And it's not all happening only in P&G. The May issue of *The School Counselor* contains a special feature on the same theme. Editor Marguerite Carroll has collected four articles on psychological education and gives some of her own reflections on the topic.

May will be a fruitful month for APGA'ers concerned with this vital new role of the counselor. Dig in!

Etcetera

Daniel Sinick
George Washington University

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

Sex, Schools, and Society: International Perspectives edited by Stewart E. Fraser. Aurora Publishers Inc., 170 Fourth Ave. N., Nashville, Tennessee 37219. 1972. 507 pp. $15.00.

Professor of International and Comparative Education at George Peabody College for Teachers, Fraser has assembled articles and chapters from a variety of magazines and books. Only half from international sources, the readings relate mainly to sex education, a hot issue producing as much heat as light. Unsanitary "plumbing courses" are assailed, "where children are prematurely taught by sexually illiterate teachers not only 'why to' but also 'when to,' 'where to,' and . . . 'how to.'" Several authors apply these phrases in offering specific guidance to parents and teachers. The editor indicates that the book is intended for both professionals and laymen.

Inequality: A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America by Christopher Jencks and others. Basic Books, Inc., 10 East 53rd St., New York 10022. 1972. 399 pp. $12.50.

Jencks and seven associates at Harvard's Center for Educational Policy Research report the results of three years of research on inequality in our society: in the schools, in cognitive skills, in educational attainment, in occupational status, in income, and in job satisfaction. Little is offered on the last, and less on "noncognitive traits"—"This chapter is, then, largely a confession of ignorance. . . ." Readers not tripped by the academic trappings (hundreds of chapter end-notes and three appendixes ready to burst) will reap untold rewards (who can tell?) regarding issues of central societal concern.

Equal Employment Opportunity for Minority Group College Graduates: Locating, Recruiting, and Employing by Robert Calvert, Jr. Garrett Park Press, Garrett Park, Maryland 20766. 1972. 247 pp. $4.95.

A culmination of the author's two previous books on this subject, this accumulation of a wealth of pertinent material can enrich readers variously concerned with ethnic minority groups (mainly blacks but also Spanish-surnamed, American Indian, and Oriental). Equal opportunity is a current concern of many educators as well as employers. An educator himself, Calvert is both scholarly and down to earth in presenting practical ways to assist in upgrading minority groups. Operating on the "personal conviction that until employment parity exists in the United States, true racial harmony is impossible," he has put his head where his heart is.

Parents and Teen-Agers: Getting through to Each Other by Margaret Albrecht. Parents' Magazine Press, 52 Vanderbilt Ave., New York 10017. 1972. 288 pp. $5.95.

One of six books issued concurrently, this deals with later "adolescenthood" than most of the others. Albrecht chooses words for both accuracy and appeal, mincing none in such chapters as "Enlightened Sexual Illiterates" and "Marriage: Till Life Do Us Part?" Her *au courant* content and with-it style might engage P&G'ers as well as parents. She suggests (and cites) pertinent readings on numerous subjects but focuses on the generation gap, which she sees as an opening and opportunity for communication. Her closing sentence: "In the Them of Us, in the Us of Them, lives the We."

Youth in Two Worlds by Denise B. Kandel and Gerald S. Lesser. Jossey-Bass, Inc., 615 Montgomery St., San Francisco 94111. 1972. 217 pp. $8.75.

The authors replicated and extended the work of James S. Coleman (*The Adolescent Society,* 1961). "In contrast to the case in the natural sciences, replications are rare in the social sciences, but they are necessary if we are to reach reliable generalizations about

human behavior and the nature of society." Also cross-cultural, the study sampled adolescents and their mothers in the United States and Denmark. The findings seem to soften the concepts of generation gap and counterculture, indicating "considerable difference between the values of Americans and Danes, and rather little difference between adolescents and their parents within either society." The "two worlds" appear less generational than geographic.

A Statistical Portrait of Higher Education by Seymour E. Harris. McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1221 Sixth Ave., New York 10020. 1972. 978 pp. $25.00.

"A Report for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education," this thick tome of some 700 tables could raise the sights of anyone who stood on it. Its view focuses on economic issues, Harris being a pioneer in and expert on the economics of higher education. Its five parts portray students, enrollment, faculty, income and expenditures, productivity and structure. Intertwining the formidable tables and text are the peculiarly personal viewpoints of Harris: "Although . . . I have refrained from taking positions on controversial issues, . . . on such problems as tuition, aid, or physical plant, I have inadvertently exposed my prejudiced views." He thus adds color to his statistical portrait.

Working under Pressure by Vernon E. Buck. Crane, Russak & Company, 52 Vanderbilt Ave., New York 10017. 1972. 252 pp. $11.50.

This lively book treats the vital topic of job pressure with such stylistic superiority and statistical sophistication, as well as substantive depth, that it could have been a best seller if more popularly packaged and free of several strings. Based on data collected in the early 1960's in New York State, the book has belatedly been printed in Great Britain in heavy-footed format and with a high price. The data deals dynamically with personal and environmental variables affecting pressures at low and high occupational levels.

Public Relations for Public Schools by Doyle M. Bortner. Distributed by General Learning Corporation, 250 James St., Morristown, New Jersey 07960. 1972. 401 pp. $8.95.

Professor of Educational Administration at City College of New York, Bortner defines his topic (and his mission) as seeking "to foster understanding and friendly *working* relationships between schools and community," not as propaganda, salesmanship, or manipulation. He gives the topic thorough coverage, including the roles of administrators, teaching and nonteaching staff, students, parents, and the community. Three chapters deal with communication media and techniques, of which this book is a poor example because of its dull format and typography.

Grief and How to Live with It by Sarah Morris. Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 51 Madison Ave., New York 10010. 1972. 122 pp. $2.95.

In coming to grips with grief, this little book has tackled a big subject. Death and loss of loved ones have too long been considered too mournful to mention. Mourning is an essential emotional process, however, which the author describes in some detail. She delineates three phases, suggests coping behavior, and even deals with "preparation for bereavement." Unprepared for her own personal loss, she has found solace in searching the literature to assist others in bearing bereavement. Laced with vignettes from real life, her literate litany ends with a bibliography offering added bibliotherapy.

Book Reviews

Publishers wishing to have their books considered for review in this column should send two copies of each book to Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

After the Turn On, What? by Peter S. Houts and Michael Serber. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press Company, 1972. 131 pp. $3.60.

After the Turn On, What? has the fine goal of relating various learning theories to humanistic group procedures. The book consists of seven chapters written by nine people who participated in a weekend group experience. The authors are educators, psychologists, and psychiatrists whose approaches "ranged from Skinnerian to cognitive learning." Although this goal is laudable, its achievement is difficult.

The greatest difficulty I encountered centered on the various writing styles, vocabularies, and frames of reference that the authors used. A quote illustrates this problem: "The structure of skilled activity which I suggest here is closely analogous to, and heavily influenced by, modern developments in the theory of generative grammar. In psycholinguistics as developed by Chomsky and his students, the basic element is the sentence and the sub-component constituents are unambiguously defined only in the context of the higher order elements."

Fortunately, some of the chapters are clearly written and make some important points. For example: "The emphasis on 'feedback' can lead to an over-reliance on confrontation as a feedback device. Liberman's research has clearly shown that confrontation can reward by attention the very behaviors one wants to diminish."

In addition to the positive points that are made, some very necessary questions are asked. Is it acceptable for groups to be run merely for the entertainment of the middle class? An implied question is: Shouldn't group procedures be used to help those who lack skills for meeting the demands of life—the handicapped, the underprivileged, and

the many, many people who need to *learn* more effective ways to express themselves and to deal with their feelings and with their fellow man?

One final criticism I have of the book is that, even though the authors consider themselves to be "scientific" in their analysis of these group techniques, they are not above making *unscientific overgeneralizations:* "Such experiences are useful to *all* types of persons." I wonder where the author got the data for such a statement?

In summary, it is my opinion that the authors of this book have begun an examination of group procedures that is badly needed. This examination includes two important aspects: (a) a look at learning theory principles that apply to humanistic group procedures and (b) the questioning of appropriate goals for such procedures. Very little is presented in this book that has direct application to the operation of a group. Far more often than necessary authors use jargon peculiar to their own particular frames of reference, and each author seems to have a different frame of reference and jargon.

I expect that this book would be of little value to the practicing group leader who wants to pick up a few techniques. The person who is interested in the study and research of group procedures will probably find this book to be stimulating.—*William A. Lewis, University of Missouri—Kansas City.*

A Possible Reality by Kenneth B. Clark. New York: Emerson Hall Publishers, Inc., 1972. 176 pp. $6.95.

The theme of this book, by the staff of Metropolitan Applied Research Center, Inc. (MARC), stresses that high academic achievement in the public schools of metropolitan cities can become a reality. The pupil population focused on in the book includes blacks, Puerto Ricans, the economically poor, and other minority groups and low status children in highly urbanized public schools. Clark's book is deceiving in that the first impression the reader gets is that the book will present some answers; instead, there are proposals. A chapter is devoted to Clark's proposed design to raise the academic achievement of children in the public elementary and junior high schools of the District of Columbia, where institutionalized,

residential racism is quite evident, as 90 percent of the children in the public schools are black. The essence of his proposal is that concentrated emphasis in curriculum development and teaching be placed on developing reading skills to the highest level possible. His intensive reading mobilization program is extended to every segment of the curriculum, from arithmetic to athletics.

A Possible Reality may be quite pertinent for administrators, curriculum supervisors, and superintendents. Clark's educational premises underlying the learning possibility of normal children serve as an excellent, pointed checklist. A plus for testing is given in Clark's recommendation that standardized tests be used in his design but that they be used diagnostically, so as to facilitate improved academic achievement.

Approximately two-thirds of the entire book is devoted to a compilation of programs that have demonstrated some success in obtaining a degree of academic achievement with urban minority group students.

It is interesting to note that in the section devoted to guidance counselors and psychological services, Clark could find little evidence to indicate that counselors improve student achievement. Furthermore, his supportive data for counseling programs seems to center around those programs outside the school setting.

The book may best be used for a quick perusal of specific minority-oriented programs across the country aimed at the development of a rationale for a positive thrust in academic planning with minority youth. —*Thelma T. Daley, Overlea Senior High School, Baltimore, Maryland.*

The Educationally Deprived: The Potential for Change by Kenneth Clark and others. New York: Metropolitan Applied Research Center, Inc., 1972. 208 pp. $2.95 paperback.

Our democratic and affluent society is faced with the ever-present educational blemish of the disproportionately high percentage of black children who are academically retarded and educationally deprived. Numerous hypotheses have permeated the educational arena in terms of the potential and achievement level of minority children; many have been controversial, and others have been refuted. The abiding question is: Are Negro

children less motivated than others in academic achievement?

Is there a significant difference between black and white children in motivation for academic achievement? What factors account for these differences? The authors have presented a moving treatise on the educational status of minority children and the potential for and barriers to change.

The book is a compilation of a three-pronged approach synthesized on the basis of a study authorized by the Hazen Foundation, which was a survey of literature on the educationally deprived, an experience survey, and a work discussion by theorists and practitioners.

Kenneth Clark clearly states his rejection of the concept of cultural deprivation and, in tracing its history, also documents its role as an educational barrier to the reduction of academic retardation in the minority child. As in *A Possible Reality* (see previous review), Clark opts for the concept of educationally deprived as opposed to cultural deprivation. The former makes the educational system more accountable, while the latter seemingly provides one more thing to help propagate the damaging concept that low status children are uneducable.

Martin Deutsch makes a bold attack on our educational and political bureaucracy and very pointedly outlines the ways in which we adulterate and dehydrate all innovative ideas and change possibilities so as to perpetuate the status quo—in essence, the perpetuation of the retardation of the black child.

For the practitioner currently faced with racial problems in school settings, Hylan Lewis' chapter, centered around the changing images and aspirations and social roles of blacks and whites, may help to crystallize some basic understandings in the changing racial picture. The counselor of the seventies cannot divorce himself from the effect of politics on his client and programs for his client. The authors relate the significance of ethnicity to politics. Frank Riessman and Alan Gartner caution us that, although human service industries is the vastly expanding area of employment in the United States, it is evident that our schools have not prepared youth to move into these areas. Their findings are definitely related to the

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counselor's role in the current thrust for career development and career education.

This book is a timely reference for those involved in human development and the caring-helping professions. The views analyzing the culturally or educationally deprived vary from a lack of regard for equal educational opportunity to a thrust for a racial balance in educational opportunities. — *Thelma T. Daley, Overlea Senior High School, Baltimore, Maryland.*

Contemporary Field Work Practices in Rehabilitation by John G. Cull and Craig R. Colvin. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1972. 344 pp. $16.75.

This workbook and guide to field work practice presents 27 exercises on topics such as case load management, interviewing, vocational counseling, using occupational information, and developing a work sample test. Some exercises have particular relevance to students undertaking clinical practice in special settings, such as schools or prisons, or to special client groups, such as the blind and mentally retarded.

In presenting their approach to guiding graduate students or new practitioners in the conduct of the rehabilitation counselor's job, the authors have suggested a number of useful learning experiences for these neophytes. Educators responsible for guiding the field experiences of rehabilitation counselors will find useful ideas in many parts of this book. However, by its very nature, the discussion on many topics can only serve to complement other materials used in preparing counselors. The major shortcoming of the book may be that it incorporates some superficial discussions of critical topics within the discussion sections of the exercises. I also find fault with the inclusion and discussion of questionable projective psychological assessment methods in the section on the use of psychological tests. There seems to be little purpose served in including descriptions of the use of the Blacky test or the House-Tree-Person test in a field work manual for counselors who lack the training and knowledge to recognize the limitations of such instruments. The several counselor performance rating plans developed by counselor educators and presented in the appendix are worthwhile contributions

to the educators and supervisors responsible for guiding the professional development of graduate rehabilitation counseling students and new practitioners who lack the benefit of graduate preparation.

Although it presents a carefully drawn picture of the field work practice model developed at the Virginia Commonwealth University, I don't believe its contribution is substantial and unique enough to justify asking new students in rehabilitation counseling to add it to their libraries. The manual for field work experience generated by most programs will suffice for the basic elements of field work training.—*John E. Muthard, University of Florida, Gainesville.*

Nothing Left to Lose: Studies of Street People by Jeffrey D. Blum and Judith E. Smith. Boston: Beacon Press, 1972. 142 pp. $6.95.

Nothing Left to Lose should be read by counselors and other practitioners in schools and social agencies to provide insight into motivations and problems of runaways and dropouts searching for happiness on the streets. Readers who seek to find the "unique experimental counseling technique" promised by the jacket cover will be disappointed, but the 33 case histories do describe the interactions between nonprofessional counselors and these street people.

Each of the 33 subjects, 26 of whom are between 13 and 19, sought help at the Sanctuary, which consists of a storefront counseling center, hostel, and hot line in Cambridge, Massachusetts. The authors, Sanctuary staff members, are writing about their involvement and that of other staff members with these adolescents.

Counselors at the Sanctuary attempted to be honest, self-disclosing, sympathetic, and understanding of feelings, and they tried to form authentic relationships with clients. They arranged temporary housing, provided information, shared mutual experiences, comforted during "bad trips," transported individuals, counseled, arranged meetings with relatives, and provided other appropriate services. Unique and experimental? Perhaps not, but the book does show how such common helping techniques have been used to help others.

Chapters deal with runaways, outcasts

from correctional institutions and mental hospitals, kids experimenting with alternate life styles, blacks boxed in by society, and summer travelers—older hippies, often nomadic and seemingly adjusted to street life. I found the stories of young runaways to be particularly thought provoking. Several cases reveal the intolerable home life of some youngsters and their complete powerlessness to do anything about it other than to run away. As might be expected, the authors blame society for most of the problems, but they do not advocate street life as the answer to them.

Pitfalls of street life are clearly defined. Crime and sickness are commonplace, females are exploited, and, contrary to the book's title, those who seek refuge on the streets will sometimes find that they do have more to lose. No hard evidence is presented as to the success of these nonprofessional counselors as compared with professional help or no help, but I believe that what these counselors were doing was constructive and that such efforts should be encouraged.

Read the book not to learn about counseling, but to tune in to the plaintive stories and problems of those who are living on the streets and need help.—*Josiah S. Dilley, University of Wisconsin—Madison.*

Loneliness and Love by Clark E. Moustakas. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972. 146 pp. $5.95 hardbound, $1.95 paperback.

This most recent book by Clark Moustakas is particularly timely because of the skillful way in which he deals with aspects of life that have been brought into sharp focus during recent years by the popularity of encounter groups and sensitivity training and by the demand for "authenticity." The author has numerous reservations regarding the authenticity of encounter groups, and his insightful analysis of their strengths and weaknesses is one of the greatest contributions of this book. To the precept "If you can't make it with people, you can't make it" he has added the corollary "If you can only make it with people, and not alone, you can't make it." He maintains that essential patterns of personal growth are from the inside out, not vice versa. He sees feedback

as a valuable source of growth in self-aware-ness, but not as its essential element.

This short book is replete with illustrations and examples drawn from the author's experience. It also contains a number of insightful comparisons and contrasts: being alone versus being lonely, solitude versus loneliness, truth versus honesty, honesty versus compassion, loneliness versus love. It is not a book to be read lightly. Rather, it deserves careful reading and prolonged contemplation on the part of anyone who is serious about improving his interpersonal skills and his understanding of human behavior. The insights gained and the pleasures experienced in reading this book will be well worth the time and effort expended. —*Henry L. Isaksen, Ricks College, Rexburg, Idaho.*

A Student Job Classification Plan for Colleges and Universities by Frank C. Adams and Clarence W. Stephens. Carbondale, Illinois: Southern Illinois University Press, 1972. 197 pp. $6.95.

This book will be of major interest to those engaged in work-study and financial aid programs and others on campus concerned with the employment of student workers. The text will be of peripheral interest to those studying job analysis and descriptions and classification systems, as well as to vocational counselors.

The book is well organized in outline form. The introduction details the purpose and aim of the publication, perhaps to the extent of overselling it. The introduction is followed by job groupings in five major occupational divisions: preprofessional, clerical, service, preskilled and semiskilled, and temporary. "Each division is divided into occupational groups which are alike in general characteristics but have identifying traits common only to each group." The characteristics are outlined in the job descriptions, which include a listing of duties, responsibilities, and qualifications necessary to perform each job.

Whether the reader will accept the authors' judgment that all jobs described in the book are educationally oriented is questionable. Something more than a description of the performance of job duties is needed to provide insights into and understanding

of work. But this book is a good base to start from.—*Emily M. Chervenik, University of Wisconsin—Madison.*

The Job Revolution by Judson Gooding. New York: Walker & Company, 1972. 213 pp. $7.95.

According to this book, the survival motives traditionally satisfied by work have been pretty well taken care of by our affluent society. Other values are being cultivated: freedom, fate control, consideration, self-fulfillment. The nature of jobs has been changing so that they are even less capable than before of satisfying those evolving expectations. The result is more questioning of the significance of work, especially by the young. This leads to various forms of dropping out from or fighting the system. The key to opening this trap is to revolutionize jobs in order to make them more rewarding.

The foregoing diagnosis of what plagues the world of work consumes the first half of the book. If it has a familiar ring, that is because it is a popular account of what a number of behavioral scientists have been saying since the 1950's. What may be more novel is the second half, which reports ways in which some companies have been attempting to effect the "job revolution."

Traditional palliatives such as higher pay or shorter work weeks are insufficient, warns the author. What is required is job enrichment, including making the job more important, involving the worker, increasing the worker's participation in goal setting and decision making, using promotions creatively, enlarging the scope of responsibility, and rotating workers among tasks and jobs. Employers need to try combinations of such ingredients that fit their situations. Numerous examples of such attempts are briefly described.

The book has many of the assets and limitations of journalistic accounts (much of the material originally appeared in a *Fortune* series). It is interestingly written, but it inclines toward oversimplification and overgeneralization. By relying largely on firsthand interviews, it contains many case illustrations not in the professional literature but fails to provide the perspective of that literature. It contains provocative insights, but also naive assumptions, such as the ex-

tent to which job dissatisfaction is responsible for drug abuse or even poor production. Citing so many innovations suggests the wide range of 'potential options but results in superficiality and conceptual confusion; job enrichment gets confounded with sensitivity training, improved mechanization, company-sponsored education, use of the company as family surrogate, increasing corporate concern with problems of society, and human resources accounting.

The book merits reading by those—particularly laymen—who may not be familiar with this important set of topics. However, anyone who is or becomes seriously interested in the subject will need to obtain a fuller and better balanced picture.—*Raymond A. Katzell, New York University.*

Vocational Rehabilitation: Profession and Process edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C Thomas, 1972. 576 pp. $18.50.

This book of readings, containing 29 chapters, 6 of which were written by the editors, is intended not only to serve as a text for introductory classes in rehabilitation services but to "serve additionally as a reference for the practitioning counselor." Since the book is organized into six parts that one would typically find in rehabilitation introductory classes and not in a format consistent with a practitioner looking for an answer to a specific problem, it is difficult to see how it would function as such a reference.

As with most books of readings, the chapters are unevenly written. Those on the history of the rehabilitation movement and on work evaluation are well written and informative without containing an undue amount of pompousness. Other chapters, such as "Techniques of Counseling in the Rehabilitation Process," confine themselves to commonsensical material that repeats obvious instructions most people would be apt to act out without having read about it.

Other chapters range from those with administrative and policy emphases ("Cooperative Programming," "Administrative Concerns in Cooperative Programs," and "Changing Rehabilitation Manpower Utilization," for example) to relatively short chapters on specific problems in working with other professions ("Working with the Physician" and "The Psychologist and Rehabilita-

tion"). Altogether, these chapters contain a useful amount of information on programming or specific problems worth digging out. In addition, there are several chapters on different locales and clientele that the counselor may confront (school unit counselor, correctional counselor, mental health counselor, counseling services to blind, etc.). As might be suspected, due to space limitations, the lack of sound facts and research, and a penchant at times to confuse the abstract with the useful, the material is presented at a general level of thinking comparable to the boy scout oath. Hardly red meat for the practitioner.

To sum up: *Vocational Rehabilitation: Profession and Process* appears to be a satisfactory text for introductory rehabilitation classes as well as for use with undergraduate students in rehabilitation education programs. It should be used with the student new to rehabilitation and in need of a general cognitive orientation and should be supplemented with a course syllabus that gives such a student practical exposure to much of what is discussed.—*Leonard A. Miller, University of Iowa, Iowa City.*

Career Plans of College Undergraduates and Graduates

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Helping the Helpers to Help: The Development and Evaluation of Mental Health Consultation to Aid Clergymen in Pastoral Work by Ruth B. Caplan. New York: The Seabury Press, Inc., 1972. 241 pp. $6.95.

Listen in on a conference of clergymen and you will find that they have all become "counselors." But, as Ruth Caplan points out, "The diffidence of many clergymen about the value and efficacy of their own role in helping troubled people is misplaced. . . . Aping the ways of other professionals . . . will only lead to loss of a valuable discipline."

Better still, let clinicians and clergy collaborate. In capsule form, this is what *Helping the Helpers to Help* is about: "A minister . . . might request the help of a mental health specialist if he suspected that emotional pathology or interpersonal tensions in his parishioner or in the parishioner's family were frustrating his own efforts to ease the situation. The consultant would then try to clarify these issues in the parishioner's life, for the clergyman, with two goals in mind: first, to help the minister to return to the case better able to satisfy that parishioner's needs; and, second, to enable the consultee, as a result of his experiences with this case, to gain sufficient knowledge, skill, and objectivity to handle similar situations in the future on his own."

Clinicians welcome this kind of association, as there are too few of them to prevent or attentuate the severity of suffering in the population. Other care-givers must be mobilized. Ruth Caplan tells how the Episcopal Diocese of Massachusetts collaborated with the Harvard Medical School Laboratory of Community Psychiatry in such an effort.

Parishioners' problems treated include a failure to adjust to retirement, acceptance of a handicapped daughter, a graduate student freezing at his oral exams, and a confused Sunday school superintendent. Clergymen's problems include dismissal from one's parish, congregations' use of budgets to control clergy and retaliate against them, the constant draining of supportive relationships, and one's own unacceptable hostility.

One could wish for statistical objectivity in the chapter that purports to evaluate the program. Instead, clergy who didn't like the program are depicted as people who had lacked the opportunity to inject their own views. Yet, as Gerald Caplan, the program's director, points out, "This book . . . attempts to act as a facilitator of communication among all of us who desire to work together to improve the mental health of the people in our communities." The Episcopalians and the United Methodists are working on it. Others should. Buy it for your favorite clergyman. Read it first; you'll enjoy it. But your rabbipriest-minister friend will identify with it.—*Donald R. Ortner, Hampden-Sydney College, Hampden-Sydney, Virginia.*

Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything*, including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association.* The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

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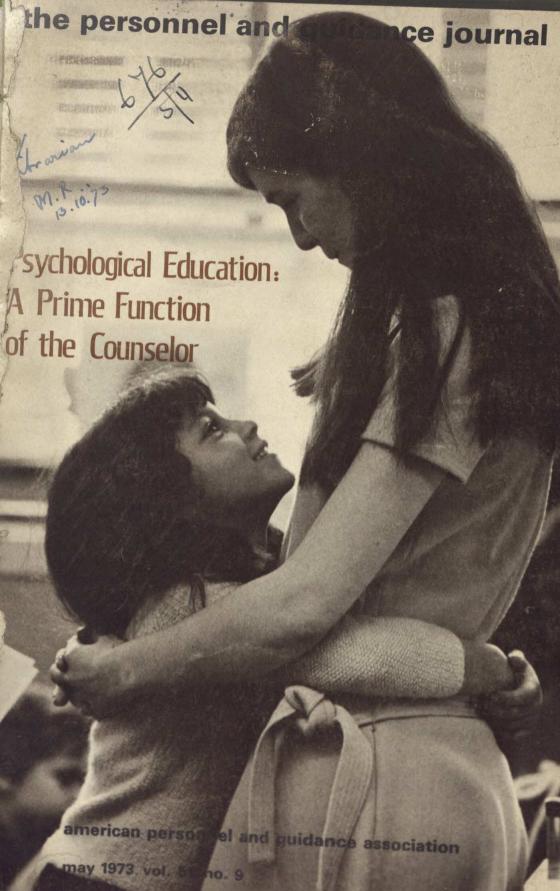
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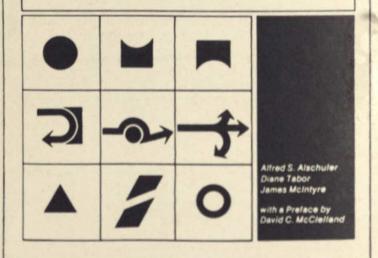
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Psychological Education:
A Prime Function
of the Counselor
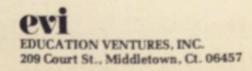
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Diane Tabor
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Psychological Education:
A Prime Function of the Counselor

Guest Editors:
ALLEN E. IVEY
ALFRED S. ALSCHULER

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the personnel and guidance journal

A Special Issue Is Born:

October 1971: Allen Ivey inquires about P&G's possible interest in a Special Issue on psychological, affective, and humanistic education. I reply: It sounds possible; why don't you send us a detailed proposal?

December 1971: We receive a detailed proposal from Ivey that includes the rationale for the issue, its general format, a prospectus for 11 articles, suggested authors, and miscellaneous features. Because the Editorial Board is already reviewing three other proposals for Special Issues on various topics, I hold off sending them this one for a few weeks.

February 1972: I send Ivey a long letter summarizing a variety of reactions from the Editorial Board. We suggest that he broaden the scope of coverage to include a wide age range and different approaches and that he try to get more writing from practitioners and less from professors. Other more specific suggestions from individual Board members also included. I am personally very enthusiastic about the whole idea; I think it is one of the most promising directions

for the development of our field, and I'd like to see P&G bring it to our readers so they can judge for themselves. Also, I know Al Ivey and some of his colleagues at UMass to be among the most productive people in the country in this area.

May 1972: We receive a completely revised proposal, now with Alfred Alschuler added as co-editor, because Ivey felt that it would take two guest editors to handle all the material. (Two Al's are better than one?) Forward proposal to all members of Editorial Board for review.

June 1972: Three days before leaving for a vacation trip to Europe I send the two Al's our reactions to the new proposal. Lots of specific suggestions about topics, authors, and treatment, but essentially: Go! Tentative target date for issue is April 1973, which means that first drafts of all articles would be due 15 September 1972.

July 1972: Ivey writes that they have started work but cannot possibly meet suggested deadlines. Can we postpone to

Amherst - Washington - New York

September 1973 issue? I phone him, twist arm, and we compromise on May 1973 issue, with drafts to arrive by 15 November and final copy by 1 January 1973. Very tight schedule, but they'll try.

August to October 1972: Notes, phone calls, progress reports. Lots of little problems, but things moving along well.

November 1972: Drafts of all articles received by editor at home and by Bob Malone and APGA Press staff at headquarters. About 10 days later we hold an hour-and-a-half telephone conference call, Amherst-Washington-New York. Lots of ideas, agreements, and plans for revision, rewriting, additions, deletions.

30 December 1972: Package arrives, containing practically all revised manuscripts, right on schedule. Great to work with dependable guest editors!

January 1973: Phone calls and notes between Washington, New York, and Amherst. Too much copy; we compromise on a 112-page issue instead of 96 pages, but even at that they will have to exclude several articles now in hand. Guest editors frustrated but gracious;

what a pleasure to deal with guys like them—they practice what they preach!

February to April 1973: Now it's in the hands of the APGA Press staff. Hundreds of hours of detail work—copy editing, marking for printer every single italic, boldface, large type, headings, etc. Locate and select photographs. Make dozens of decisions about layout, typography, cover design. Guest editors consulted frequently, authors too sometimes. Journal editor smart—he goes on sabbatical leave 1 February, leaves country 15 February to 15 April, so avoids most of these headaches.

End of April: With some overtime work, a few crises, and a modicum of good luck, the issue will have gone through stages of typesetting, checking galley proofs, making up dummy, checking page proofs, checking final blueline, and final final touches and adjustments and will be printed, bound, and delivered to the mailer by 30 April deadline. Now it's in the hands of the U.S. Postal Service and then our readers. I think it's an excellent issue, full of good ideas, and, in my view, a fine vision for the future of our field. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*

Psychological Education Is...

• A small group of children sit with a counselor. They are asked to tell about one thing they enjoyed during the past week. As the children share experiences, all listen attentively. The counselor is supportive but makes no value judgments. Later the children share their concerns and their enthusiasm.

• A junior high school class is playing a ring toss game in which each student decides how far to stand from the peg. The counselor notes the level of aspiration of each participant, and this information serves as the basis for discussion of achievement motivation. In this game, students learn about themselves and others.

• Some high school students have just returned from a senior citizens' center. They are taking a course in basic helping skills. The course, taught by a school counselor, includes videotaped training in counseling skills, a variety of affectively oriented "personal growth" exercises, and information on organizational development. The class project is aimed at developing an ongoing recreational and counseling program for the community.

• A psychologist in a university counseling center is meeting with a group of men in a male consciousness raising session. Through contacts with women's liberation, he has become aware of the effects of sexism on males: excessive competitiveness, the exclusion of tender activities, the new demands of the "liberated woman." He wants to share his knowledge with this group and expand his own personal awareness of the effect of sexism on his own experience.

• A rehabilitation counselor from a mental health unit is meeting with the board of directors of the chamber of commerce. His concern is to facilitate job placement of a former psychiatric patient. In the past his approach to such a situation had been to lecture and persuade. Now he is using simulation games by which the board members can come to understand the emotional experience of rehabilitation clientele. To his surprise, he finds the board responding enthusiastically to his ideas and starting to share some of their own personal concerns.

Psychological education is all of these activities and more. It is special techniques and growth centers promising fulfillment. It is carefully designed courses that inculcate aspects of mental health and personal adjustment. It is a new curriculum area in which people learn to understand themselves and more effectively get what they want.

For practicing counselors, psychological education provides a new conception of their roles. When we hear the word *counselor,* we tend to think of a person who sits in an office and works with one person or a small group on problems in living that are brought to the counselor. Psychological education involves the counselor's taking initiative in deliberately teaching aspects of mental health to larger groups. Education, rather than remediation, is the goal.

This Special Issue of P&G provides an overview of the psychological education movement and its implications for the practicing counselor. Psychological education is a relatively new discipline, but it is already providing important levers to help counselors refocus their efforts and increase their effectiveness.

The emphasis in this issue is on the practical: What can counselors, personnel workers, employment counselors, and rehabilitation counselors use from the psychological education movement?

We have attempted to summarize primary trends, illustrate them with specific examples of what counselors can do with psychological education, and stimulate further exploration through suggested readings and activities. In a new field the shape of theory, research, and practice develops rapidly, and we hope that you will be an active part of this growth.

We anticipate that psychological education will become one of the most important roles of the counselor in the next five years. The counselor has too many skills, the counselor education movement too many concepts of effective human relations for us to keep these techniques locked within rigidly defined roles and restrictive accreditation legislation. Psychological education offers all of us a new opportunity to disseminate our methods of promoting health while helping more individuals grow. ■ *Allen E. Ivey and Alfred S. Alschuler, Guest Editors for this issue*

An Introduction to the Field

ALLEN E. IVEY

ALFRED S. ALSCHULER

The sheer magnitude of psychosocial problems demands that we revolutionize traditional forms of helping in ways that will increase our effectiveness. Current methods cannot succeed because they aim at remediation of the few in crisis instead of promoting psychological growth for all and because traditional practices do nothing to cure the pathogenic institutions that cause "mental illness" and create major obstacles to normal development. We can no longer afford the luxury of treating individuals or small groups while ignoring the "sick" institutions that produce the symptoms in people we try to heal—too late to have prevented the symptoms.

We need to become concerned with curriculums such as "social studies," which, as practiced, means teaching geography and history rather than teaching the ABC's of healthy social relations. We need to change school norms that try to deny the undeniable, such as the taboo on discussing the sexual concerns of adolescents, who then drop out of school or stay in school "drugged-up" because they have difficulty in accurately anticipating or effectively managing their own bodily urges. Too often we treat minority members as if their problems were solely in them rather than in mono-racial social norms, underrepresentation of minorities at all levels of the educational and busi-

ness hierarchy, and untreated, unconscious racism among virtually all whites. As rehabilitation counselors, we need to do more than "test, tell, and place," because too often employers have barriers that keep minority group members "in their place." As school counselors, we should no longer support evaluation policies in which progress is measured in terms of grades so unreliable as to be invalid and so unrelated to long-term life success as to indict the whole academic curriculum as monumentally irrelevant (Hoyt 1965; Jencks et al. 1972; Kirschenbaum, Simon & Napier 1971; Kohlberg, LaCrosse & Ricks 1971).

As counselors we collude in the misdiagnosis of "the problem" by treating victims of inhumane institutions instead of mobilizing ourselves and others to restructure learning, interpersonal and intergroup relationships, and schools so that there will be more healthy human beings and fewer casualties. It is self-condemnation to argue that counselors comprise only a small percentage of those who could rectify the situation, because it is we who have created an artificially scarce helping resource by legally restricting "help" to a specific role and by not teaching our colleagues, administrators, teachers, parents, and children the fundamentals of helping others. Then we make it doubly difficult for ourselves by

waiting passively for symptom-clients to bring problems to us instead of our actively intervening at an early stage in schools, communities, or agencies and offering programs designed to promote psychosocial health directly.

In this issue we advocate a new definition of the counselor role: that of the psychological educator who actively intervenes in the life of institutions and teaches healthy skills to others. Four statements of intent characterize this new counselor role.

1. *Goals.* The metagoal of psychological education is to increase individuals' intentionality: their capacity to anticipate alternative experiences, choose among them, and attain their desired goals.

2. *Strategies.* Intentionality should be taught in the most inclusive and effective ways possible.

3. *Tactics.* The system of education needs as much guidance as do individuals.

4. *Demystification.* "Helping" cannot and should not be licensed. It should be taught to the widest possible audience.

The remainder of this introductory article describes and amplifies these four intentions. The issue as a whole indicates a variety of specific action steps counselors may take if they wish to become psychological educators.

GOALS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

Intentionality (Ivey 1969; Ivey & Rollin 1972) is a general competence in which people have the ability to develop numerous alternatives for achieving their particular ends. Instead of clinging rigidly to one point of view or alternative, individuals who act intentionally are seldom "stuck" with only one solution to a problem. They think about the situation from several perspectives and find new ways to solve their problems. Equally important, the individual who acts intentionally is not bound to one course of action but can act "in the mo-

ment," responding to constantly changing situations. The goal of intentionality reminds us that more than one answer is possible, that blocks may be transcended by alternative routes, and that flexibility allows room for many differing points of view. Specifically, psychological education encourages people to select their own goals and helps them develop many effective processes to reach those goals.

Weinstein's model, described in this issue, is an example of an educational process explicitly designed to promote intentionality. The first step in his model is to identify a high priority individual or group concern through a series of diagnostic activities. The next step is to engage in a sequence of activities that help people to clarify the sources, nature, and consequences of their concern and to experiment with alternative patterns. Weinstein's framework shows how intentionality can be "taught" to individuals. The same principles are equally effective when used with a wide variety of groups. Intentionality need not be restricted to individuals: A women's consciousness raising group may become more intentional; a corporation or a community may become more intentional. Intentionality as defined here means that we start with the concerns of the individual or group and then develop an expanding range of alternatives for action.

While the aim of psychological education is to help an individual, group, or institution choose its own goals, it could be argued that the psychological educator's choice of exercise, workshop design, or psychological curriculum is imposing processes and goals on the learners. However, preexisting individual and group values permit and limit what is learnable. If participants are not interested, do not attend, or do not pay attention, they do not learn (Alschuler 1973).

Related research on adults by McClelland and Winter (1969), Luborsky and others (1971), and Coleman (1966) also suggests that initial attitudes, interest,

and motivation determine more of the variance in how much is learned than any other educational input or combination of inputs controlled by teachers. Those with whom we work are not passive vessels eternally ready to contain any content we provide. That is obvious. It is less obvious, but equally true, that implicit individual choices make teaching and counseling either meaningful or irrelevant. Individual psychological makeup may be the best guardian of healthy, relevant growth and the best protection against even unintended psychological imperialism.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION STRATEGIES

At least four basic strategies guide psychological educators in their attempts to create programs that maximally increase intentionality. First, *it is more effective to promote long-term internalization than to focus primarily on short-term knowledge and satisfaction.* Too often in education there is virtually no correlation between grades or test scores and indexes of later success in life. At minimum, this means that teaching must do more than simply expose students to what is to be learned, more than merely arouse their interest. We need to provide students with support even after training is over to integrate the content into their lives and enable them to practice the processes. If psychological educators orient their courses and workshops primarily to maximize knowledge and satisfaction at the end of the program, they may fail to promote long-term growth by omitting guidance in application and practice. The guidelines for organizing psychological education programs that do increase long-term growth are described in the "Conceptual Models" section of this issue, in articles by Weinstein and by Alschuler and Ivey.

A second useful strategy states that *developmental theory and research suggest competencies that are critical to later development and the approximate ages during which they are learned.* For instance, in their systematic review of longitudinal studies of mental health, Kohlberg, LaCrosse, and Ricks (1971) discovered that the two best predictors of all forms of adult maladjustment were poor peer relationships in the first three years of schooling and antisocial behavior in the second three years of schooling, both indexes of poor ego development. They have therefore suggested the importance of appropriate training in ego development during these critical periods as a far more effective antidote against adult maladjustment than concentrating energies on subsequent remedial help.

Training designed to increase the level of moral reasoning (*how* one thinks about moral issues, not *what* one decides) is one example of how developmental theory can be transformed into a psychological education course (see the article by Scharf, Hickey, and Moriarty in this issue). Children 5 to 7 years old judge as good that which helps them—what they want or like. The opposites are bad. As children grow older, they learn less egocentric patterns of moral reasoning based on shared social norms and processes. Some children, however, do not learn the competencies and skills associated with more mature stages of moral reasoning and remain fixed at an earlier stage (Kohlberg 1968, 1969). Scharf's training, based on Kohlberg's theory and research, raises the level of moral reasoning of men and women in prisons and has shown promising results in decreasing recidivism.

Using developmental theory in a similar way, Gum, Tamminen, and Smaby (see their article in this issue) have created a series of activities that escort students through the normal developmental tasks described by Havighurst (1953). Microcounseling (Ivey 1971) also illustrates the value of teaching specific communication skills in a developmental sequence. Attending behavior (eye con-

tact, physical attention, verbal following) needs to be taught before more complex skills such as selective attention to emotions, interpretation, and direct sharing of experience. Too often in counseling and therapy we attempt to "teach" problem solving skills before our counselees have basic verbal and nonverbal skills.

A third strategy became clear with Eysenck's (1952) article reviewing and assessing the effectiveness of various forms of psychotherapy. *Eclectic procedures systematically organized to teach a specific outcome are more effective than a single procedure used to solve a variety of problems* (Alschuler 1973; Eysenck 1961; McClelland 1965; McClelland & Winter 1969). What this means is that any single procedure is likely to be less effective than a combination of procedures organized into a definite curriculum to accomplish a limited, specific goal. Individual treatment, group counseling, advising, behavior therapy, Gestalt therapy, group dynamics techniques, reevaluation therapy, value clarification, and so forth, are not invalid per se; they are simply less effective than a systematic combination of several different procedures used to reach a single goal. It means also that the definition of the goal should precede the choice and sequence of methods. Psychological educators need to define critical psychological content, develop multiple methods for teaching it, and orchestrate these methods into a course or curriculum. The article by Gluckstern in this issue exemplifies this strategy.

Finally, *the school or institution also has to be treated if "the problem" is to be solved.* This does not mean more one-to-one counseling with administrators in addition to students. It means developing collaborative methods to change role definitions, rules, policies, norms, and expectations that influence all people who exist in the institution. For example, if achievement motivation, communication skills, and personal responsibility for de-

cision making are taught to students, it is important that the way in which the students learn in other classes also allows, encourages, and rewards them for acting in these ways. If the same things are taught to adults, their institution (employment office, college, business, etc.) also needs to be examined and perhaps changed. Too often effective individual training is undermined by ineffective or damaging institutions and systems. These system changes require that psychological educators have additional skills in helping organizations develop and grow.

If we were to follow these four principles of strategy as closely as possible, it would entail the selection of basic psychological processes, each to be facilitated during the critical period in its development with the aim of helping students internalize, not just experience, this new capacity for intentionality. A wide range of procedures would be systematically coordinated to attain each relatively limited, specific, and important goal. The introduction of each new psychological education course would be taught in settings where there were supportive curriculums, administrative support, norms, and values within the whole system.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION TACTICS

All psychological educators do not need to be politically powerful within their system, experts on developmental theory and organizational development. There are several different ways, or tactics, accessible to counselors to implement the strategies that will promote intentionality. While few of us have the capability and interest to involve ourselves in all tactics of psychological education, most of us will find at least one of these tactics compatible and useful.

Perhaps the easiest tactic for school counselors is to *introduce psychological techniques into regular academic subject courses in such a way that the psychological and academic goals enhance each*

other. A major problem of the guidance movement and education in general has been the separation of personal growth from academic learning. And yet, teachers complain that they cannot concern themselves with the personal lives of their students and teach content effectively. By introducing here-and-now use of imagination, touching students' feelings, and translating ideas into action, traditional subject matter areas become more personally relevant. For example, the Pilgrims' leaving England because of intolerance is usually presented and discussed as a fact. Students fail to see the relevance of this experience for their own lives. However, students wake up and become involved when they are asked value clarifying questions such as "Did you ever experience a similar intolerance in your own life?" or "If you are persecuted or teased by someone, what do you do?" The purpose of using such a technique is not simply to increase academic learning but take advantage of the academic context to accomplish important psychological goals by helping students clarify their values.

Counselors at every level are becoming aware of their responsibility to act as consultants to classroom teachers, but they are often unaware of what steps they can take to achieve a meaningful impact on the educational process. One vital role for the counselor is teaching teachers how to do psychological education in their classrooms by conducting inservice training courses and offering to teach psychological units in teachers' classrooms. In the "Techniques" section of this issue, several articles describe methods that can be used to convert traditional academic subject matter into simultaneous psychological education: value clarification (Simon), group dynamics techniques (Zide), behavioral techniques (Goshko), and creativity training exercises (Shallcross). Employment counselors can use similar tactics with their office staffs or employers, thus providing greater

productivity and a better understanding of human interpersonal processes. For example, extensions of creativity training and group process techniques can be used to help these agencies improve their decision making processes and work better with the dynamics of human relationships. Through such efforts, counselors' activities may become a major resource in the institution instead of a peripheral service. Psychological education provides a content that is meaningful and helpful in many settings beyond the school. Biofeedback, with its many implications for the future, is presented by Danskin and Walters as a new set of techniques for psychological education.

A second tactic available to counselors is to *teach one or more of the existing psychological education courses in which the content is solely psychological.* The "Programmatic Approaches" section of this issue outlines courses valuable in many settings (achievement motivation training—McMullen; the human development program—Palomares and Rubini; moral reasoning—Scharf, Hickey, and Moriarty; developmental guidance —Gum, Tamminen, and Smaby).

We may be approaching the day when counseling centers, high school guidance offices, and state employment services maintain units providing a variety of courses in psychological education for their publics. College counseling centers increasingly offer such programs as life-planning workshops, married couples' weekends, and training for reducing examination anxiety. Psychiatric hospitals are increasingly concerned with teaching patients "life skills" as well as conducting therapy. As counseling becomes a teaching process, the counselor is becoming an educator.

Beyond the application of psychological education courses to individual problems, it is possible to use this tactic in dealing with psychological problems so pervasive that they must be classified as social issues. The three articles in the

"Social Applications" section of this issue devoted to sexism (Delworth), racism (Anderson and Love), and parent training (Gluckstern) illustrate what counselors can do to create more humane social norms by developing human beings who do not abuse themselves through drugs or abuse others through unconscious support of institutionalized racist and sexist policies.

The results of making the curriculum more psychologically oriented and teaching psychological education courses will be restricted in their usefulness unless the school, family, organization, or governmental institution provides supportive opportunities and incentives to practice what has been learned. Thus, the third basic tactic, *organizational development,* is an increasingly important function of the psychological educator. Efforts to change systems run the gamut from starting day care centers, headstart programs, and adult education courses to becoming involved in a child advocacy program, providing legal aid to redress psychological injuries, setting up a volunteer counseling program for psychiatric patients, and designing workshops to change relationships among faculty, administrators, and students by redefining goals, norms, policies, and rules (Schmuck & Miles 1971). An example of this tactic is described in Gluckstern's article in this issue, which deals with a training program involving a variety of individuals in the community to deal with the abuse of drugs. This article illustrates how psychological education can be implemented in larger organizations and groups.

DEMYSTIFYING THE NATURE OF HELPING

Not only is it impossible and undesirable to eliminate all acts of helping that involve unlicensed helpers, it is necessary to disseminate the special skills of helping to the widest possible audience of students, teachers, parents, and community members if we are to have a reasonable hope of achieving the goals of psychological education. We have too long kept our skills to ourselves through a mystifying process we term "professionalism." The true professional is committed not only to advancing knowledge but also to sharing it with the public.

Many of the essential elements of helping are known (Carkhuff 1969, 1971; Ivey 1971, 1973, in press; Kagan & Krathwohl 1967). Further, levels of competence in these skills of helping are measurable and replicable, as demonstrated in research studies by these authors. Perhaps most important, however, is the increasingly clear demonstration that helping skills can be taught to others. Carkhuff's studies on helping in human relations, Ivey's work on microcounseling, and Kagan and Krathwohl's Interpersonal Process Recall demonstrate that the skills of counseling can be transmitted to such widely different audiences as medical students, teachers, junior high and elementary students, and psychiatric patients. Although these methods differ, each is a process for demystifying and more clearly transmitting the elements of the effective helping process. Often lay helpers are even more effective than traditionally trained professional counselors.

Most of the procedures described in this issue can be used to facilitate the growth of helpees into helpers. The clearest example is Gluckstern's systematic training program for parents as community workers in drug education. In developing her program, Gluckstern started with the individual concerns and goals of each trainee as suggested in the Weinstein model. Psychological education exercises and team building concepts such as those presented in this issue by Simon, Zide, and Shallcross and elsewhere by Ivey (1971) and Carkhuff (1969, 1971) were combined in a unique 60-hour program based on several of the strategies described on the previous pages. Evidence

from Gluckstern's work strongly suggests that we do not need to spend as much time in training helpers as is claimed by many in the profession. Her work also emphasizes training parents as community developers. Those with the ability to produce changes in individuals can use these same skills in organizational development efforts. Thus, the parents who have participated in Gluckstern's training program have an important repertoire of skills to help facilitate continuing change in the community.

We are convinced that the primary challenge facing the counseling profession is spreading the counseling and change processes. No longer can we afford to sit in our offices and wait while clients get "sick" or in trouble with a troublesome environment. No longer can we justify our existence by helping clients "adjust" to a school, college, agency, or institution which itself is maladjusted. We must help individuals and institutions by directly facilitating growth, health, and intentionality. We need to pass on this knowledge as rapidly and coherently as possible to as many people as possible. Psychological education offers an important way to demystify our profession and reach these goals. ∎

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RECOMMENDED READING FOR THE COUNSELOR

MICROCOUNSELING: Innovations in Interviewing Training (2nd Ptg.) *by* **Allen E. Ivey,** *Univ. of Massachusetts, Amherst. A Contribution by* **John R. Moreland.** *Foreword by* **Robert R. Carkhuff.** *Introduction by* **Dwight W. Allen.** Provides a new format in examining the interviewing process, and describes a systematic approach to teaching interviewing skills and development in interviewing and methods through which counselor trainers may use the new medium of videotape to increase effectiveness of their students. Evidence validating microcounseling is summarized. *'72, 228 pp., 1 il., 1 table, $9.75*

PERSPECTIVE AND CHALLENGE IN COLLEGE PERSONNEL WORK *by* **James F. Penney,** *Boston Univ.* Identifies fundamental conflicts between the expectations of student personnel workers and the demands made upon them by faculties, administrators, and students. Issues of the student personnel worker's status, his power function on campuses, his objectives, and the modes of organizing to meet his objectives are reviewed, and data on the effectiveness of his efforts are examined. The changes needed to provide different and more meaningful services to students are discussed. *'72, 108 pp., $6.50*

COUNSELOR EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION: Readings in Theory, Practice and Research *compiled and edited by* **Milton Seligman** *and* **Norman F. Baldwin,** *both of Univ. of Pittsburgh. (60 Contributors)* Mainstream issues considered are the analysis of effective components within the training situation, issues related to specific supervisory strategies, and innovative procedures in the training of the group counselor and paraprofessional. The effect counselor educators and supervisors have on the counselor trainee is reviewed. *'72, 436 pp., 5 il., 34 tables, $14.75*

INTERPERSONAL HELPING: Emerging Approaches for Social Work Practice *compiled and edited by* **Joel Fischer,** *Univ. of Hawaii, Honolulu. (47 Contributors)* '72, 704 pp., 19 il., 12 tables, cloth $16.95, paper $9.95

SOCIAL AND REHABILITATION SERVICES FOR THE BLIND *by* **Richard E. Hardy** *and* **John G. Cull.** *(22 Contributors)* '72, 420 pp., $15.75

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UNDERSTANDING THROUGH COMMUNICATION: Structured Experiments in Self-exploration *by* **Lois Timmins,** *Timberlawn Psychiatric Hospital, Dallas. Foreword by* **Howard M. Burkett.** '72, 336 pp., $11.75

PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF MENTAL HEALTH CONSULTATION *edited by* **Jack Zusman** *and* **David L. Davidson,** *both of State Univ. of New York at Buffalo. Introduction by* **Peter F. Regan.** *(13 Contributors)* '72, 176 pp., 1 il., 4 tables, $6.75

Complete list of books in this field sent free on request
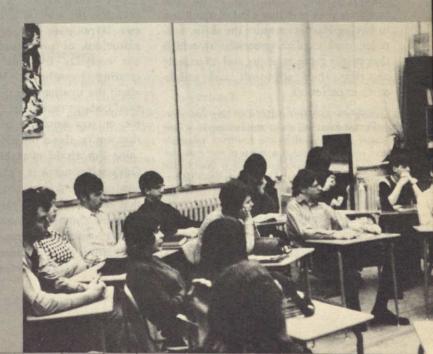
Conceptual Models

How should counselors set about organizing their approach to psychological education? There is no one answer, for effective psychological education requires that individuals find their own unique style and approach.

This section describes two approaches to organizing programs in psychological education. A sequential model is presented by Weinstein, who has translated the scientific method of inquiry into humanistic terms for study of the self. Weinstein's "trumpet" model provides a guide for counselors to examine themselves and their personal concerns and goals in psychological education.

Evaluation in psychological education is only in its infancy. Alschuler and Ivey argue for a new approach that places greater emphasis on counselor-controlled, practical research and that provides immediately usable feedback on the accomplishment of program goals, both short- and long-term.

These two models are among the many ways of conceptualizing and organizing the rapidly expanding field of psychological education. Practitioners in this field have placed emphasis on alternative frames of reference and the capability and necessity of individuals to develop programs suited to their unique needs and situations. This may be contrasted with the approach found all too frequently in which "experts" argue about which method or theory is "right" or "best" and then try to sell their "answer" to the professional and lay public. Psychological education is based on respect for individual differences and the capacity of different methods to achieve desired goals.

Self-science education: the trumpet

GERALD WEINSTEIN

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It seems ironic that most, if not all, of our formal education is geared to processing those areas most distant from our everyday living experience while those areas closest to our daily experience—our relations with ourselves and others—are left to chance. We have been quite willing to train for scientific skills and attitudes toward the world "out there," while inner-world transactions tend to be ignored. Our educational institutions devote most of their efforts toward having learners think and respond more carefully and rationally to such areas as history, science, math, and so on, but rarely do they give that kind of attention to having learners acquire the skills, attitudes, and explicit processes by which they might more carefully and effectively negotiate their self-to-self and self-to-other experiences.

Lacking the necessary skills for seeking and processing information about themselves, is it any wonder that few of us can construct relatively clear and unambiguous accounts of our goals, aspirations, values, traits, and abilities? And in the absence of learned skills necessary to the understanding of interpersonal interaction, is it any wonder that many individuals are confused about their relations with others [Sechrest & Wallace 1967, p. 223]?

It is in response to this issue that a number of us at the University of Massachusetts are attempting to devise educational strategies and approaches that would help learners become their own self-scientists.

Science seeks to give us a more accurate and consistent picture of our reality. It is basically a systematic way of gaining knowledge. This systematic approach is usually referred to as the scientific method, and it involves such activities as careful observation, hypothesizing, further observation, experiments, and evaluations. If this is science, then what might self-science be?

One characteristic of a scientific approach is the activity of creating hypotheses. Hypotheses are generalizations, explanations, or predictions. Throughout our everyday lives we are constantly creating hypotheses. We hypothesize about the weather ("It think it's going to rain"), about each other ("You don't like me, or you wouldn't be talking to me that way"), about ourselves ("I'm shy because I'm afraid of making a mistake"). One's self-concept is a cluster of hypotheses one has about oneself. A quality that makes scientific hypothesizing different from the everyday variety is that the former consciously concedes that the speculation *is* a speculation and therefore tentative. In addition, a person with

a scientific perspective seeks to check out, or affirm more accurately, whether or not a particular hypothesis has a greater or lesser degree of congruence with reality.

In contrast, many of us operate as if the ideas, notions, or hypotheses we have about ourselves and others are established truths, and they therefore become the absolute maxims by which we conduct our lives. We may think, "I am a failure; nothing I do seems to turn out right" or "Whenever I start to feel close to someone, I know I'm going to get hurt, so I keep my distance." Those who hold such beliefs probably have never been very careful or deliberate in determining how much of each of those beliefs is fact and how much fiction. Since such beliefs are rarely regarded as hypotheses, as tentative, they remain unchecked.

Self-science education involves programs for training learners in those skills, concepts, and attitudes that will expand their self-knowledge concerning their own unique style for being in this world. We hypothesize that, by training learners to perceive more accurately their relation to themselves, others, and the world and to anticipate more accurately the phenomena of their personal experience, their intentionality, or power to choose their own ways of being, will be increased.

THE TRUMPET: HOW IT WORKS

Just as in any formal discipline, in self-science education there are clusters of appropriate tools, skills, and methodologies that the self-scientist acquires. We are just beginning to formulate and explicate those process tools with learners in a variety of classrooms in order to evaluate their potential for facilitating personal inquiry.

One such process tool we call the Trumpet (Weinstein & Fantani 1970). It is similar to stages in a problem solving sequence often described in educational literature. The Trumpet attempts to provide the self-scientist with a cognitive map or sequence in working through a set of personal observations (see Figure 1, p. 602). It does not provide solutions but is an aid in setting direction for the inquiry. It systematizes introspection by providing models of the kinds of questions one might ask at each phase of personal exploration.

In our experimental self-science education classes, learners are taught the language and skills for proceeding through the Trumpet—pattern clarification, self-inventory, pattern function, and so forth. A variety of personal situations and themes of the learners are then processed. We usually move from relatively simple concerns such as "Why I rarely volunteer" to more complex issues such as "Why I feel so distrustful of others." In other cases we focus on the student's responses to selected, preplanned exercises as the major content for processing. (For an example of how the Trumpet is used in a 16-week college course entitled "Education of the Self," see Weinstein 1971.)

To illustrate the Trumpet process, following is a counseling situation with a sample set of responses. The process begins after the student has had a confrontation. In this sample, C is the counselor and S is the student.

Inventory Responses

S: The teacher called on me today in class to explain something we had for homework.
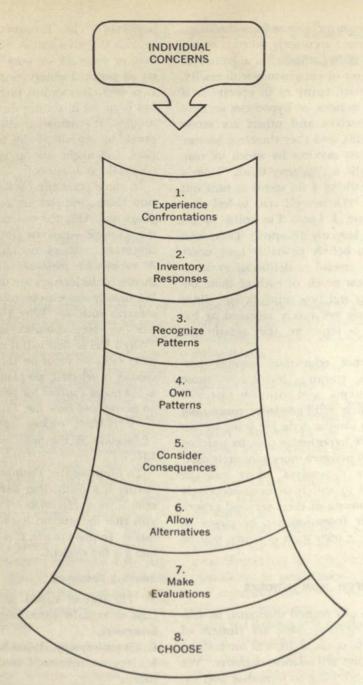
C (*Inventorying*): What happened?

S: I got so nervous I could hardly answer.

C (*Inventorying feelings*): What were your feelings like?

S: I was scared as hell.

C (*Inventorying body feelings*): Where in your body were you feeling the fear?

S: In my throat; it got so tight it was hard for me to talk. My hands were trembling and sweaty.

FIGURE 1

The Trumpet

FIGURE 1
The Trumpet

INDIVIDUAL CONCERNS

1. Experience Confrontations

2. Inventory Responses

3. Recognize Patterns

4. Own Patterns

5. Consider Consequences

6. Allow Alternatives

7. Make Evaluations

8. CHOOSE

1. I interact with a situation that generates data.

2. How did I respond? What was unique? What was common?

3. What was typical of me?

4. What function does this pattern serve for me?

5. What does happen, or could happen, in my life because of this pattern?

6. Will I allow myself any additional patterns of response?

7. What happened when I allowed myself a new behavior?

8. Now that I have a choice, which behavior do I want to use?

C (*Inventorying actions*): What did you do?

S: I mumbled a few words, stopped, then stammered a few more. Nothing made sense.

C (*Inventorying actions*): Where were your eyes looking?

S: First I looked at the teacher for a second or two, then the rest of the time I stared down at the floor.

C (*Inventorying thoughts*): Do you remember what sentences you were saying to yourself at the time?

S: I was thinking about what a fool I was making out of myself in front of everybody in the class, that I was going to say something so dumb everyone would laugh, and how I wished I were someplace else.

Recognize Patterns

C: Has this ever happened to you before?

S: I'll say.

C: In what kinds of situations?

S: Whenever I have to say something in front of a group of people.

C: Is it only in school that this happens?

S: No. Sometimes at home, when we have a lot of company, I kind of stay in the background and hope that nobody asks me anything.

C: If you wanted to teach me your pattern of responding to situations like this, what kind of directions would you give me?

S: Well, first of all, I'd tell you to start imagining things the night before the day you might be called on.

C: What kinds of things?

S: Oh, imagine the teacher calls on you and you say something so stupid the whole class breaks up and starts whispering to each other about how stupid you are. Then imagine the teacher putting you down for giving such a dumb answer and then giving you a lousy mark.

C: What else would I have to do?

S: Do just what I did. When you get called on, get nervous as anything.

Mumble, look down, and finally give up and don't say anything.

Own Patterns

C: Can you tell me any way that your pattern helps you? What might it help you avoid or get? Try finishing this sentence: "By reacting this way in those situations, I avoid—"

S: Well, I guess I avoid giving the wrong answers.

C: How is avoiding giving the answers useful to you?

S: If I don't give the answers, I can't make a mistake.

C: And if you can't make a mistake?

S: Then I won't do anything stupid.

C: So you use the pattern to protect you from feeling dumb?

S: Yeah, I guess so.

C: Do you feel less stupid when you use the pattern?

S: No. In fact, I think I feel more stupid.

C: So your pattern isn't too effective in helping you get what you want?

S: I guess not.

C: What do you want?

S: To feel smarter. To not feel so darn scared anytime I have to say something in front of people.

Allow Alternatives

C: Would you be willing to try some experiments with yourself to see if you can find anything that works a little better for you?

S: Maybe. What kinds of experiments?

At this point the counselor and the student would brainstorm a set of possible alternative ways to negotiate these feelings and responses. One set of possibilities might involve getting some reverse sentences, such as: "Whenever I'm about to speak before a group, before speaking I will tell myself, 'I am smart, even if I make a mistake,' or 'Even if they laugh at me, I'm still a very worthwhile

Following are some processing ideas (in addition to the ones found in the article) for each phase of the sequence.

Confrontation and Inventorying Responses

1. What happened? What did you do? What specific actions did you take?

2. What were you paying most attention to?

3. At which points in the situation did you feel most comfortable? Most uncomfortable?

4. Can you describe any of the feelings you had?

5. Where in your body were the feelings being experienced?

6. What sentences were you saying to yourself? What was your internal monologue or dialogue?

7. Can you write down, as if it were a script, what some of the different voices in your head were saying?

8. How many of the sentences involved "shoulds" or "shouldn'ts"? What were they?

9. If you felt like doing something else, what stopped you or allowed you to do it?

10. Were you affected by the responses of others? How?

11. How were your responses to the situation the same as or different from others' in the situation?

Recognizing and Clarifying Patterns

1. How is your response typical of you?

2. In what kinds of situations do you usually respond that way? (When, where, under what conditions?)

3. If you were going to train someone to respond as you do in those situations,

what would you train them to do? Be as detailed as possible.

4. Can you remember the first time you responded this way? Describe the situation as if it were happening right now.

5. What response would be the exact opposite of yours? Describe it in detail.

6. Fill in the following blanks in regard to your pattern: Whenever I'm in a situation where _____, I usually experience feelings of _____. I tell myself _____, and what I do is _____.

Owning Pattern by Clarifying Function

1. Imagine that your pattern is a servant you hired. What is that servant supposed to do for you? Can you write a job description?

2. Put your pattern in an empty chair opposite you. Now get into that chair and become your pattern talking to you. Begin your statements like this: "(Your name), if it weren't for me . . ." (Let the pattern brag about how useful it is to you.)

3. What does your pattern get for you?

4. What does it help you avoid? From what and how does it protect you?

5. Suppose you wanted to sell your pattern to others. Make up a powerful advertisement that would make others want it.

Considering Consequences

1. Is your pattern getting you what you want?

2. Where is it falling down on the job?

3. Are there some effects your pattern is having that you don't particularly like?

4. What price are you paying for your pattern?

5. What part of your pattern annoys you?

6. Suppose you could never do anything different with your response. What might happen?

7. Are you missing out on anything by responding this way? What?

8. What precautions would you give somebody who was going to use your pattern?

Allowing Alternatives

Imagine that you have discovered the "perfect solution" and have found a way to respond that doesn't cost you as much as your original pattern. Picture yourself with this new response pattern (a) in your classroom, (b) at home, and (c) at a social occasion. (Use any appropriate situation.)

Answer the following questions for each of the above situations:

1. What are some of the specific new behaviors you would be exhibiting?

2. What differences in you would those who know you best be most likely to notice? What would they say? How would you respond?

3. What new feelings would you have about yourself?

4. How would these feelings affect your appearance? Would you walk, talk, look different? How?

Brainstorm all the possible experiments that might serve to get you started in the direction you want to go. Pick one or two that seem to be achievable. For each one answer the following questions:

1. What within you will attempt to sabotage your experience?

2. What within you will allow you to try the experiment?

After deciding on some strategies, outline the specific actions you will take.

What are they? In what situations are they to be tried? With whom? How often? How can you reward yourself for your efforts? Let at least one other person know of your experimental design, and decide how and when you will report your progress to that person.

Making Evaluations

1. What happened with your experiments?

2. What were some of the thoughts, feelings, and action consequences that resulted?

3. Did your strategy seem adequate, or does it need some revision?

4. If what you tried was given a fair trial and didn't seem satisfactory, what else might you try from your list of alternatives?

Choosing

After running these experiments with yourself, what decision are you ready to make about your original pattern and alternative "try-on" behaviors? A person who had successfully internalized the Trumpet process would be adept at filling in the blanks of the following passage for most intrapersonal or interpersonal situations: Whenever I _____ (confrontation), I anticipate that _____ (thought), so I usually _____ (feelings, behaviors, typical reaction). I react that way in order to get and/or avoid _____ (function), but in the process _____ (consequences, price paid). So what I would really prefer is _____ (ideal, end state). The last time I found myself in that situation I tried _____, _____, and _____ (experiments). I liked what happened when I tried _____ (specific experiment), so from now on I am going to _____ (choice).

person,' or 'I will no longer give you the power to make me feel stupid.'" Other alternatives might include: "If I don't know an answer to a question, I will say, 'I don't know the answer,' and I will say it with confidence, or each time I have an opportunity to say something before a group, I will practice making at least one contribution, such as telling whose opinion I agree with."

After a list of alternative experiments is compiled by the counselor and the student, the student decides which alternative to experiment with for the next two weeks or so. As they are carried out, the experiments are reported to the counselor at mutually arranged times, and they are then evaluated and/or revised.

The example given is highly condensed and simplified. Since every individual will be at a different comfort and skill level of self-disclosure, this level will affect the ease and depth with which the sequence will proceed.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE TRUMPET

If the Trumpet process were to be used solely for helping someone solve a specific problem or concern, the entire thrust and basic assumptions of self-science education would be lost. Self-science education is oriented primarily toward developmental and constructive skills rather than symptom removal. Thus the key training strategy is to have the learners become their own processors. In order to achieve this they must learn the skills and cognitive maps that until now have been solely in the possession of the professional helper. In this case learners would be trained to use the Trumpet processing skills and procedures on their own.

In operational terms, a training sequence might have the following phases:

1. Someone with experience and expertise would help a learner through the Trumpet process, as in the example given.

2. The Trumpet and processing guide would be explicitly taught to the learner.

3. The learner would then be trained to help another person through the Trumpet process.

4. Under supervision, peer co-counseling pairs would continue with further training in processing.

While most of the Trumpet processing in our own work has been with individual concerns, it is possible for the same procedures to be applied to many different social units, such as couples, families, staffs, and even total communities. When used in this fashion, the dyad, group, or institutional members examine their own patterns of communication, styles of problem solving, and typical methods of completing a task. Such patterns could then be taken through the group using the remaining Trumpet steps. Hopefully, the outcome is learners (individuals, groups, and communities) capable of facilitating the expansion of each other's self-knowledge as well as their own, which is the ultimate goal of self-science education. ∎

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Internalization: the outcome of psychological education

ALFRED S. ALSCHULER

ALLEN E. IVEY

Unfortunately, psychological educators, like their more traditional colleagues, often use bogus criteria to assess the effectiveness of their work—the criteria of short-term knowledge and satisfaction. Evaluation and tests in our schools ask students to repeat, remember, or comment on past learning. In contrast, the tests of life challenge us to make our own decisions about our future. Too much of counseling and schooling requires individuals to respond to the questions of others or to questions about the past. Because these criteria are unrelated to life success (Hoyt 1965; Jencks et al. 1972; Kirschenbaum, Simon & Napier 1971), any changes in practice based on these criteria may be irrelevant to the long-term internalization and usefulness of what is taught.

To increase the effectiveness of psychological education, we first need to develop and use a measure of internalization—when a skill, idea, value, or motive has been voluntarily incorporated into a person's repertoire to such an extent that the behavior has become the person's own. The tactics and strategy of psychological education should be designed to help individuals internalize their own goals, their own ideals, their own use of skills, and their own definitions of self. This article defines internalization and provides practical suggestions to help psychological educators, counselors, and teachers systematically evaluate the important long-term effects of their work.

MEASURING INTERNALIZATION

The first step in reorienting one's work in psychological education toward internalization is to visualize clearly an example of this end state. The following experiment may help you in defining your basic goals. The instructions given below are suggestions for a daydream about your greatest success as a teacher or counselor. Later, as you compare this daydream with what you do in your daily work, you may be able to identify appropriate changes to make. The experiment can be done alone or in a group, but in either case it will be helpful to find a place where there are as few distractions as possible. This exercise in imagination takes about 10 minutes.

Almost all of us can recall individuals who came back several years after we taught or counseled them and told us how much they were influenced by what we did—the student who became involved in a local campaign issue as a result of social studies class, the quiet girl who continued to write poetry after an English class, the tough kid who performed superbly well in a job he discovered through vocational counseling, the boy who never forgot the help he got when he was

in trouble. Even though these testimonials are fairly rare, we never forget them. Beneath it all, this is the kind of influence most of us would like to have on our students.

Now think about the work you do that you value the most. Conjure up in your imagination a "prize" individual whose life after the experience with you has been like a prize that has been given to you. Is the person male or female? What does the person look like? Close your eyes if it helps you imagine the individual.

It's now July, a year after you saw this person. It's a weekend, and the person has two days of free time to do what he or she most desires. This is your prize individual, who voluntarily initiates on the weekend what, unknown to you, most pleases you. What does the person do? Take four or five minutes to imagine the whole weekend. If you have chosen one of your actual students or counselees, try not to be bound solely by the knowledge of what that person actually has done. The point of the daydream is to imagine as clearly as possible what your ultimate hopes are. Now take a little more time to imagine what else this person does during the week or over the summer.

Try to continue the daydream in the following situation. Ten years have passed. One day, as a complete surprise to you, your prize individual returns to tell you how important you have been in her or his life. What is told to you in the five-minute monologue of praise? It is useful and fun to share your scenario with at least one other person.

If you started alone, ask one of your friends to create a "prize student" daydream. As you share your success stories, you may wish to consider the following questions to help you relate what happened in your daydream to your current work: Is there anything this person did that is related to your current counseling or teaching? How well do tests, final exams, or standard cognitive evaluations reflect the long-term internalized results you imagined? Can these long-term results be measured in any form at the end of a semester or at the end of counseling? What would you use at the end of the school year to predict these long-term results? Can you measure these predictors?

In research studies of the results of psychological education (Alschuler 1973; McClelland & Winter 1969), systematic follow-up data was collected on how much internalization occurred. This research suggests several guidelines.

1. *Wait a year.* Internalization takes awhile. After a year, if the person does not show various new energetic application, then either whatever short-term enthusiasm developed during the course was not deeply meaningful or the program was not relevant to the life experience of the participant.

2. *Look for voluntary applications.* Most people have within their repertoire sufficient responses to deal with situational demands. What distinguishes internalization is the spontaneous, voluntary application of a response even when it is not necessarily demanded by the situation. Therefore, look at how the person uses leisure time and the personal goals he or she sets.

3. *Look for applications in several areas.* If what was learned is meaningful, useful, and valued, it will be evident in several areas. In achievement motivation training, we have found that students apply what they learn in their leisure time, sports, hobbies, work, and, to a lesser extent, in school. While microcounseling training has been oriented primarily toward improving interviewing skills, we have found that important applications are made by the trainees with their families, co-workers, and others in the use of communication skills for better interpersonal understanding (Ivey 1971; see also Gluckstern in this issue).

4. *Look for evidence that the person values and enjoys his or her increased effectiveness.* Internalization will not occur if it is dysfunctional in the person's life. The best way to find out is to ask the person.

These guidelines are not a veiled plea for all psychological educators to conduct lengthy, time-consuming, costly evaluations of the long-term results of every course. Nevertheless, there are ways to help students see and educators remember that tests reflect progress toward internalization, not end goals.

MEASURING THE STEPS TO INTERNALIZATION

In extensive research on achievement motivation training for adolescents, Alschuler (1973) identified a five-step sequence that maximizes long-term internalization: (a) get the student's *attention*, (b) provide a unified, intense *experience* of the skill, concept, or motive, (c) develop a clear *conceptualization*, (d) *relate* the learning to other important aspects of the student's life, and (e) get the student to *practice* in ways that are meaningful and satisfying to him.

These stages are sequential in nature. To experience thoroughly, students must be attending. In order for the concept to be clear, it must be experienced emotionally as well as cognitively. Before the conceptualization and experience can be related to other parts of the person's life, it must be clearly conceptualized, and so on. Failures during the early stages of internalization tend to block the ultimate goal. On the other hand, measured success at each stage does not necessarily guarantee ultimate internalization. This scheme does, however, indicate a series of psychological states that can be used to find out how well one is succeeding stage by stage. Since this sequence appears to be valid for a number of other psychological education courses, the following guidelines that we developed for assessing the effectiveness of achievement motivation training have wider utility.

1. *How do you measure attention to a psychological education exercise?* If the experience is voluntary, attendance is a good measure of interest, involvement, and attention. Tardiness provides a related measure. "Down time" (bored or sleepy expressions, restlessness) provides a helpful indication of lost attention. Through observation the psychological educator can make rough estimates of the percentages of down time and attending behavior in any group.

2. *How do you know the person has thoroughly experienced what is to be learned?* The best single index is spontaneous involvement during and after the experience at both nonverbal and verbal levels. If the students can't stop talking about their experience, if they are excited and specific in their conversation, they were involved.

3. *How do you know that someone has clearly conceptualized an experience?* Transfer of learnings in psychological education requires cognitive organization of the material. Typical methods used include asking the participants to give definitions, recall examples, and suggest analogies. When teaching achievement motivation, students are asked to identify achievement thoughts, feelings, and actions in themselves as well as in situations and people outside themselves. In skill training such as microcounseling, the trainees should be able to label and identify the specific skills in individual or group counseling or therapy sessions. In Carkhuff-style training (Carkhuff 1969), ability to rate correctly the degree of facilitative conditions becomes important. As indicated earlier, however, learning that stops at this step does not correlate highly with long-term internalization.

4. *How do you know students have related experience and conceptualization to other important aspects of their lives?* The methods again are straightforward and well known: essays, discussions, reports, documentation via film, conversations with parents or friends. The basic question is whether individuals can describe where learning from the psychological education experience would be useful to them. In a values clarification exercise on racism, does the person see appropriate new behaviors and actions? In a consciousness raising workshop on women's liberation, does the person identify some possible changes in patterns of living?

5. *How do you know the person can use the learning provided?* Simulation games provide an easy way to see if the

student can use the ideas for planning and acting in a related new situation. The ability to complete an independent goal-oriented project also is evidence that the student knows how to apply the content. Diaries and follow-up conferences also provide the psychological educator with some indication of the course's usefulness to the student. When the course has been particularly effective for an individual, the resulting changes are usually noticed and word gets back. In psychological education, the grapevine is a good way to seek and obtain data on the follow-up of uses of the course or experience.

All these measures can be translated into formal research procedures. Most counselors think of research and evaluation as something distant and impossible, forgetting that easily accessible evaluative feedback is available to them here and now. The measures described here are ways that psychological educators and practicing counselors can involve them-

selves in meaningful evaluation to become more effective by deliberately promoting internalization. ■

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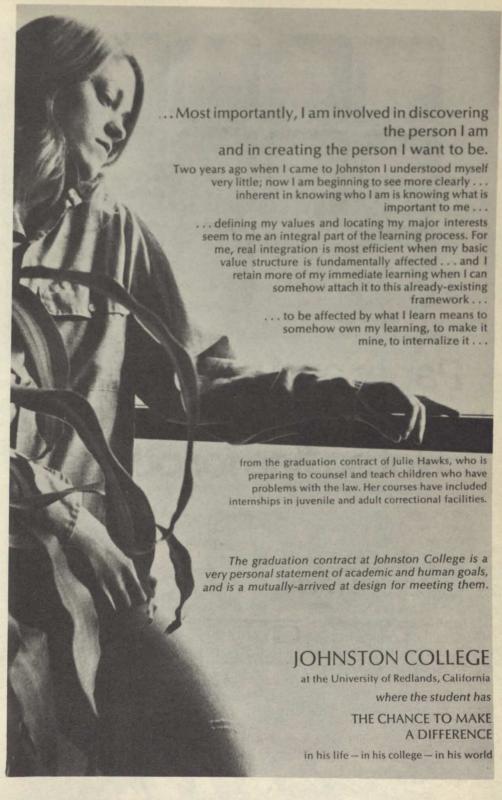
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Techniques

There is a wide variety of roleplays, games, simulations, exercises, and improvisations that can form the repertoire of the competent psychological educator. The articles in this section illustrate this diversity without any pretense of being exhaustive or complete.

Value clarification techniques described by Simon are among the most readily usable and widely used psychological education concepts. Zide's methods of group interaction can be integrated into virtually any content course or meeting to reorient processes toward psychological goals that facilitate existing classroom or group objectives.

No one questions that creativity is good, but few have specific techniques for fostering creative potential. Shallcross describes a number of procedures for accomplishing this ubiquitous goal. Behavioral techniques are not usually associated with psychological education, but Goshko shows that it is possible to train elementary students systematically to modify their own self-chosen behaviors.

Some have argued that the right to control one's own consciousness ought to be in the Bill of Rights. Danskin and Walters describe existing scientific equipment and methods that allow people to monitor and control their physiology and associated consciousness.

These techniques and others, like tools in a tool kit, can be used to solve a variety of psychological problems. Combining them with the conceptual models in the first section, counselors should be able to organize these techniques and many others for workshop development, course organization, and a variety of consultation and counseling activities.

Values clarification—
a tool for counselors

SIDNEY B. SIMON

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Even guidance counselors get headaches
and retreat to bed when indecision sur-
rounds them. Oh, to be able to choose,
to know what we want, and to act on the
decisions we make; these are life's chores
for all of us.

There are the giant decisions, like
whether or not to take off the two years
and get that degree. Or to go into hock
for a summer and make the pilgrimage
to Bethel and the National Training
Laboratory. Or maybe to go into psychic
debt and attend a nude touchy-feely
group.

It is a matter of values, and guidance
counselors would do well to learn some-
thing about the processes of values clari-
fication, not only for helping others but
also for getting their own heads together.

For several years my colleagues and I
have been training people in values
clarification, and we have worked out a
fairly comprehensive theory and ration-
ale for the work (Raths, Harmin & Simon
1966). As the theory of values clarifica-
tion began to receive wide acceptance, we
turned our energies toward devising nu-
merous strategies, techniques, and exer-
cises for helping people of all ages to
clarify their values. This article describes
six different experiences based on values
clarification theory. The strategies are
taken from Simon, Howe, and Kirschen-
baum (1972).

I hope you will first experience these
exercises by doing them yourself. I think
you will find out some interesting and
exciting things about the values you hold
—or don't hold. Then, as you work with

others, you can adapt the strategies and
make them fit your specific job situa-
tions. These strategies are also very use-
ful in the teacher training role I enjoy
seeing counselors take in some schools.
Classroom teachers are very grateful for
receiving additions to their repertoire of
relevant things to do with students.

STRATEGY #1:
EITHER-OR FORCED CHOICE

Purpose
This exercise asks students to make a
choice between two interesting alterna-
tives. In making their choices, students
have to examine their feelings, their self-
concepts, and, of course, their values.

Procedure
The teacher asks students to move the
desks so that there is a wide path from
one side of the room to the other. Then
the teacher asks an either-or question,
such as "Which do you identify with
more, New York City or Colorado?"
Posting one of the words on each side of
the room, the teacher asks those who
favor New York City to go to one side
and the Colorado choosers to go to the
other. Each student then finds a partner
on the side he or she has chosen, and the
two of them discuss the reasons for their
choice: what there is in their lives that
made them pick what they did. About
two minutes is just about the right time
for exploring, and then everyone returns
to the center of the room for another
either-or choice. This time the choice
might be: "Are you more of a loner or
a grouper?"

Five or six pairs of either-or choices work out about right, and the students are encouraged to pick a new partner each time. Here are some other useful either-or's: "Are you more political or apolitical?" "Are you more like a motorcycle or a tandem bicycle?" "Are you more like a gourmet meal or a McDonald's hamburger?"

This seemingly silly little exercise tends to involve groups of people rather quickly in beginning to look at their values, their choices, and some of the reasons they came to believe what they do.

STRATEGY #2:
SPREAD OF OPINION

Purpose

The either-or forced choice opens up the idea that rarely can we easily be squeezed into tight right or left positions. We are all more complex than that. Particularly where highly charged emotional values choices are in the offering, we would do well to teach students how to look at an issue on a spread-of-opinion basis.

Procedure

Groups of five or six people are formed. Each group chooses or is assigned a controversial issue. Some possibilities are: population control, premarital sex, legalization of marijuana, what to do about welfare, legalization of abortion, and open marriage. Each group then identifies five or six legitimate positions on their issue. Each student takes one of these positions (running to delightful extremes at either end) and writes a paragraph defending it. The paragraphs are dittoed up and given to the other members of the class, who, in turn, supply the other students with ditto sheets on the spreads of opinion from the topics they have been working on.

They all circle the position on each topic to which they can give their allegiance, and they are then asked to rewrite it so that it states as clearly as possible exactly what they believe on that topic. In the process they will have considered the other alternatives, and the choice they make will be closer to a real value.

An interesting variation is to have each group write their spreads of opinion on a large sheet of newsprint and then have the class members wander around the room and read the various opinions. Then all members of the class may be given a chance to state orally their own positions on any of the issues.

Guidance counselors often run into a student who they sense is thinking very narrowly and unimaginatively about an issue that has come up. The spread of opinion opens horizons *and* people.

STRATEGY #3:
ALTERNATIVES SEARCH

Purpose

Choosing from among alternatives is a recurring theme in values clarification. In fact, we go so far as to say that nothing can be a value unless it has been consciously chosen from a fairly extensive number of alternatives. This activity is designed to provide students with practice in searching for alternatives. It also teaches the process of brainstorming, which is such a useful tool for all people, especially values clarifiers.

Procedure

Students are asked to form groups of four or five people. They are instructed to act as a team in developing a list of alternative solutions to a problem given by the teacher, working by combining their creative energies and piggybacking on each other's ideas. There is a tight time limit, which adds to the excitement of the game. Three to five minutes is about right, although a lively topic could run longer.

One group is asked to read their list, and then other groups add ones that they have thought up but that the first group did not, and so on, until the longest possible and most incredibly creative list has been generated. Students are then asked

to pick three alternatives that really suit them the most and, finally, to rank order those three. Here are some topics that are quite delightful to work with: (a) ways to send love long distance, (b) ways to save time in everyday living, (c) where to go on a cheap date, (d) things to do to improve race relations in the school, (e) how to celebrate the new season of the year.

Students really need to see the power of a group searching for imaginative alternatives. A careful following of brainstorming rules often generates some marvelous ideas. I wish more faculties would try this strategy; the place to begin might be with the guidance staff.

STRATEGY #4:
TWENTY THINGS YOU LOVE TO DO

Purpose
In a world where the put-down, or the killer statement, is as prevalent as is a commercial on TV, we need to find ways for more of our students to seek and find self-validation. It may well be one of the best antidotes we have to the often hostile and aggressive world our students live in.

One of the most self-validating things we have ever discovered is this strategy, which gets students to look at the things they *love* to do in life.

Procedure
Ask students to get out a sheet of paper and number from 1 to 20 down the center of the page. Then, as fast as they can, in no particular order, and without the usual caution (this is not to be handed in, and no one else will see it), they are to list any 20 things in this beautiful life that they *love* to do.

Remind them of that brilliant line from *Auntie Mame*, "Life is a banquet, and most sons of bitches are starving to death." As they start making their lists, they may giggle and yuk up a bit, but ride with it. They know that this list is serious business. In fact, it is really their life, since what they love to do may de-

scribe better than most things just where they are in their efforts to make some sense out of the buzzing confusion and chaos of this thing called existence.

As the students are listing their 20 loves, it sometimes helps to suggest that they think about the four seasons and what they like to do as each one rolls around (unless you don't live in New England and don't get four seasons). It's also useful for them to think of special people in their lives and get down on the list what they love to do with those special people.

After the students have listed 20—and give them plenty of time—show them the following way of coding their list of 20 loves.

1. Place a $ sign next to any item that costs more than $3 each time it is done.

2. Place a P by each item that, for you, is more fun to do with people and an A next to the ones you prefer doing alone. (Stress that there is nothing inherently good in doing things with people or doing them alone. The point is that we each need to know what we truly love and in what way we love it.) You can use the code letter S to stand for some special person with whom you prefer to do that item.

3. Place the letters PL by any item that requires planning before you can do it; that is, it requires a phone call, a letter, an appointment, the obtaining of tickets, and so on.

4. Place the coding N5 next to those items that would not have been listed five years ago.

5. Place the letter R next to all the items that have an element of risk to them, either a physical risk or an emotional risk. (Again, stress that what might not be risky for some might be risky for others. There is no right or wrong answer to what you as an individual consider risky in your life.)

6. Place asterisks in front of the five items you love to do the very most. (Think of someone you love. Would that

person have placed those five so high on her or his list?)

7. Finally, record by each item the date you did it last.

Something very profound happens to people who make a list of 20 things they love to do and then repeat it three or four months later. Merely inventorying those things in their lives in this way seems to bring about very productive changes in people. Perhaps it is what happens with any experience in which we take time to take stock of our lives. In any case, I urge you who are reading this article to take the time to make your own list of 20 things you love to do and code it in some ways so that you will learn more about your own life.

STRATEGY #5:
"I LEARNED" STATEMENTS

Purpose

This strategy brings important closure to a values clarification experience. It ties it up, crystallizes new learnings, and generally gives some thrust to the new learnings ahead.

Procedure

The teacher prepares a chart consisting of certain sentence stems. The chart may be posted permanently in the room, or a ditto may be made of it for students to keep in their values journals. The sentence stems are:

I learned that I . . . .
I relearned that I . . . .
I became aware that I . . . .
I was surprised that I . . . .
I was pleased that I . . . .
I was disappointed that I . . . .
I see that I need to . . . .

The students are asked to think silently for a few minutes and piece together some completions of these sentence stems. It is pointed out that each "I learned" statement has the pronoun "I" in it twice. These statements are not about other people or about factual information from books; they are about our own lives and what we have learned about our own reactions to life. I am convinced that there is no better way to process a great deal of our own living than to make "I learned" statements. It would be extremely useful after a counseling session for both the counselor and the client to make them. And we might learn multitudes if we did them after faculty meetings, after cocktail parties, or after some conflict with our own children.

STRATEGY #6:
OPPOSITE QUADRANGLES

This is a relatively new strategy that could be very useful to a counselor in a one-to-one counseling session and is equally helpful in a group situation. Again, I urge the counselor to try it out on himself first.

Purpose

As part of the ongoing work of values clarification to help students find out what they deeply prize and cherish, this exercise combines two areas and uses the contrasting elements of each to lead to some discoveries.

Procedure

Ask students to divide a sheet of paper into four sections. Ask them to list in the first section 10 people they really, really like to spend time with (give enough time for this). Ask them to list in the block to the right of that data 10 places they truly enjoy going to. The places can be big, such as cities, or little, such as special rooms in their homes. This list becomes their favorite places inventory.

Ask them to list in the lower left-hand section five or more people with whom they don't like to spend time. Students may be a bit uncomfortable about this listing, but encourage them to do it as honestly as they can and get as many names on it as they can. Stress that these are people they actually do spend time with but with whom they would prefer not to. In the lower right-hand section they should list five or more places they

avoid going to, places that are not the most pleasant places in the world for them.

When they are all done, they have before them some interesting data on opposites: people they like to be with and people they don't like to be with; places that are fun to go to and places that are not so great.

Below are some clarifying questions that help examine the data, questions to which there are no "right" answers. One of the powerful ideas behind values clarification is that it tries very hard (not always successfully) to avoid moralizing or backing a student into a corner and expecting him to come up with an "acceptable" answer. It is truly a process of inquiry, of search, and its beauty is in the art form of questions that help people make sense out of the bewildering array of alternatives confronting them.

Perhaps it would be wise to state the three basic elements behind any values clarification strategy. First, we elicit some value-laden data for examination. We frequently use the phrase "We are going to inventory some things from the warehouse of your lives and experiences." Second, we accept the students' values statements in as nonjudgmental a way as possible. Third, we push the clarification a notch by looking at the data with some of the tools of values clarification. The following values clarification questions, which make use of the data elicited from the four opposite quadrangles, are in the repertoire of tools.

1. What would it be like if you took the 10 people you like best to the place you like least?

2. Would it make those places any better? Would those places ruin the people you like? Just what would happen?

3. What changes would you have to make in the places you don't like in order to make them enjoyable for you?

4. When was the last time you took the people you like (any of them) to the places you like? Are there any plans you would like to make to do just that?

5. What could be done for the people in the lower left-hand quadrangle to raise them into the "good guys" list? Or are they truly hopeless? Comment on this.

6. Can you make some "I learned" statements from doing this opposite quadrangles exercise?

SUMMARY

These six strategies grew out of our work in values clarification. I think they are very useful to counselors and teachers, and you may be wondering why I believe so strongly in their use.

It is easy to be shocked by the statistic that 50,000 people die each year in automobile accidents in the United States, and death is not to be treated casually, but I am more shocked by the statistic that most people live at about a mere 15 percent of their potential.

On the other hand, I get a rush of genuine pleasure when I think of how people who know who they are live their lives. There is real joy in watching people who know how to cry and how to laugh and who see in the wonder of existence room for themselves to grow. At the center of such growing is a deep commitment to working on a set of values by which to live. Such people in search send out a radiance that is full of spirit stretching, alternative increasing, and zest making. The processes of values clarification help to enhance the delight that comes from being truly alive. Guidance counselors who learn more about values clarification would have a valuable tool to add to their repertoire of helping, healing, and caring. ∎

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VERBAL EXERCISES WITHIN GROUPS

Below are listed a number of experiences that can be structured into group meetings for various purposes. The facilitator may use them as openers when meetings of the group are infrequent or may suggest one or more of them as interventions during a meeting.

1. Pocketbook Probe: To study trust phenomena, the group is divided into three parts, as follows: (a) those willing to have their pocketbook, wallet, purse, or checkbook examined by others; (b) those unwilling to have their pocketbook examined but willing to examine others'; and (c) those unwilling to do either. Members of subgroup B examine the pocketbooks of members of subgroup A, with subgroup C observing. Talking is allowed and encouraged. As soon as the examination period is over (allow about 10 minutes), the group reassembles, observers report, and all members discuss the experience.

2. Room Design Fantasy: Participants are asked to close their eyes and take about three to five minutes silently designing a room for themselves. They are encouraged to try to remember as much detail as possible. Members share their designs with the group and discuss their selections. This self-disclosure exercise is useful in the early life of a group.

3. Opposite Behavior: Participants are asked to try to experience the reverse of their feelings and to express themselves verbally and nonverbally.

4. Role Trading: Two group members are asked to trade roles and try to "be" each other for a few minutes during the group meeting in order to attempt to enhance empathy for each other.

5. Nonsense Syllables: A participant is asked to try to convey his or her feelings to another by using nonthreatening nonsense syllables such as foo, zak, ook, lib, paa, etc.

6. Opening the Gunnysack: When participants seem to be "sitting on" significant reactions to each other (gunnysacking), the facilitator asks them to write down what they cannot say to each of the others. The facilitator collects the papers and reads them aloud anonymously.

7. Pair Descriptions: Group members are asked to pair off and independently jot down free association descriptions of themselves and their partners. They share these with each other to check perceptions and to develop some commitment to each other.

8. Stupid Statements: As an icebreaker early in a group's life, participants are asked to stand in a circle and take turns saying or doing something stupid or nonsensical.

Group dynamics techniques

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A large number of people in our culture
are working in service related jobs where
communication and the ability to relate
well to others are crucial to making a
living and becoming a productive mem-
ber of society. Teachers and counselors
therefore need to stress the enhancement
of communication skills and effective co-
operation as primary educational aims.
In spite of the need for this emphasis,
some schools continue to instruct stu-
dents in one-way, teacher-to-student
methods, where open-ended exchange
and learning dialogue are discouraged.

Counselors can encourage teachers to
include practice in communication skills
in traditional academic courses. The
group dynamics techniques and concepts
described in this article can easily be
used in a wide variety of subject matter
areas and with a variety of age levels.
The techniques are defined, and several
are illustrated in a sample lesson plan.

TWELVE TECHNIQUES

1. *Milling.* All students are asked to
keep moving leisurely around the room,
exchanging brief comments or informa-
tion. Milling can also be done without
talking.

2. *Monad.* A student sits alone in a
comfortable position to think about a
need, a feeling, a concern, or an issue.

3. *Dyads, Triads, Quartets.* Two,
three, or four students get together to
communicate either verbally or non-
verbally.

4. *Summary Repeat.* An individual
listens to what another is saying. Before
the individual can make a comment or
discuss anything with the person who has
been speaking, the individual must sum-
marize and repeat what the other has
said.

5. *Perceptions.* In a dyad setting, one
student, Elliott, states how he feels about
another student, Michele. Elliott begins
with the statement "I see you to be. . . ."
Michele then repeats the process. No
interaction is allowed until Michele has
stated how she "sees" Elliott.

6. *Projecting.* In a dyad setting, one
student, Richard, states how he thinks
the other student, Beth, feels about him.
Richard begins the activity by making
the statement "You see me to be. . . ."
and goes on to project how he thinks
Beth feels about him. No interaction is
allowed. Beth then reverses the proce-
dure.

7. *Positive Votes.* Each student in turn
approaches a member of the group and
expresses something positive about the

other in a warm manner. The student receiving the "vote" is allowed to respond to what was said.

8. *Process Observer.* In triads and quartets, one person is responsible for observing the successes and difficulties in the group's work. Periodically (e.g., every five minutes) the process observer is asked to report his or her observations and suggestions.

9. *Fishbowl.* Six or eight students sit together in a circle to discuss an issue, an experience, or specific learnings. Other students position themselves on the outside of the circle and observe what is going on inside the circle. The inner and outer circles can reverse positions at some point to carry on the discussion or comment on what was said. An empty chair can be placed in the inner circle so that an observer can enter to ask a question or make a statement. This person must immediately return to the outer circle to listen to the responses.

10. *Report-Out.* After a task group has been working on a project, a group member is selected to report to the entire class what was accomplished in the group and how individual members worked as members of the group toward accomplishing the group goals.

11. *Modeling.* The teacher models the behavior being asked of the students, in other words, behaves in the same way the students are to behave. (If students are in a monad or dyad setting, for example, the teacher is as well.)

12. *Mini-Lecture.* Specific content information is shared in a short period of time (approximately 10 minutes). The individuals who listened to the information form small groups (of from three to eight) to discuss the information presented and their reactions to it.

Group dynamics techniques are tools designed to allow group members to become more alive in relating to each other around a clearly defined topic or task. The sample lesson plan below is not meant to imply that there is one set order

of procedures or one combination of techniques that is most effective. The right order depends largely on the style and personality of the educator, as well as the perceived needs at the time.

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

SETTING: A coeducational fifth grade class in an urban school setting.

SUBJECTS: A multiethnic group of 32 students and one teacher.

CONTENT: Social studies class, community health unit.

TIME ALLOTMENT: 40 minutes.

TEACHER DIRECTIONS (GROUP PROCESSES):

1. I will begin by giving you a mini-lecture on the definition of community health. (3 mins.)
2. Each of you (monad) is to write down on a piece of paper at least five community health needs. (3 mins.)
3. With your piece of paper in hand, walk around the room in silence (milling). Think about how each of you is different. Locate another student who you think will have a different list of needs. Find a place in the room where you can be alone together (dyad) and discuss your lists. (10 mins.)
4. Join another pair. Now the four of you (quartet) break down your list to five needs. (5 mins.)
5. Join another group of four (octet) and rank order your list of 10 needs. Choose 4 from your list of 10 that you would like to work on as a group. (10 mins.)
6. Each group write on a piece of newsprint the 4 community health needs you feel are most important to study (Report-Out). (3 mins.)
7. Talk with friends or members of your family outside of class about community health needs. Then write down on a piece of paper the ways you learned

of or experienced the need to have these community health needs solved. You do not have to hand this paper in to me. (3 mins.)

8. I will now give you a mini-lecture on how the class will work in groups to study these problems and learn of other problems that have been identified by the board of health. (3 mins.)

DISCUSSION

Through using the techniques mentioned in the above example, the teacher is trying to build on what the student already knows, allowing students to share their own ideas and experiences as well as working together to define their own needs. Helping students teach each other also allows the teacher to capitalize on the students' strong need to be together.

Group dynamics techniques are flexible tools, with many uses outside the classroom as well. The "Fishbowl" is one technique for helping two groups with differing points of view to clarify their positions without endless haggling and interrupting. Progressively enlarging discussion groups, moving from dyads to quartets to octets, etc., and finishing with a report-out, is a useful way of stimulating discussion in large groups such as PTA meetings, audiences at lectures, and students in classrooms. When students or counselees in a group are not listening to each other or are not staying with an important point, inserting the summary repeat technique often helps. Perceptions, projecting, and positive votes help loosen up counseling groups when there are unproductive silences, blocks in communication, or mutual misconceptions. Imaginative teachers, aided by counselors with a repertoire of group dynamics techniques, can dramatically transform the process of learning to emphasize communication between peers, cooperative learning, and mutual support. ■

The cry for help is allowed to ring
Clear throughout the night.
Only thus do we sit right
When the cry becomes a scream.
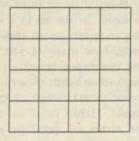
Michael D. Lewis
Governors State University
Park Forest South, Illinois

Creativity: everybody's business

DORIS J. SHALLCROSS

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How many squares do you see?

The immediate reaction is usually 16. Look again. You will find that 30 squares can be readily pointed out. Some potentially creative students may see 17 or more but will say 16 because they feel it is the expected answer.

What places man above other species is the development of the human mind. Yet his mind too often remains locked in narrow pathways, preventing the full expression of the human spirit. Creativity training, systematic work in developing unique human potential, is coming to be recognized as an important facet of psychological education.

Observations of mature, highly creative individuals indicate that these people have disciplined their minds and have learned key skills for their own creative development. In studies of such indi-

viduals (Barron 1958, 1968, 1969; Getzel & Jackson 1959; Guilford 1967; Parnes & Noller 1971), the major conclusions have been that mature, highly creative people (a) seek to open their minds and the minds of others to new and alternative perceptions of situations and objects, (b) use the self as the source of creativity rather than relying on external guidance or guidelines, (c) seek to sustain opening up their minds to unusual ways of inte- grating external reality into personal experience, and (d) find creative solutions through a back-and-forth process—a sustained sequence moving from their internal experience to their external experience.

We tend to view creativity as a given and believe that "some have it and some don't." While there may be immense initial differences in creativity among individuals, these differences become less pronounced as those whom we now term "less creative" are exposed to creativity training. Psychological education courses in creativity focus on releasing and identifying the creativity that is within all of us.

The purpose of this article is to provide an introduction to the literature and methodology of creativity. This is an area of research and applied activity that

has to date been of only peripheral interest to the counselor and counselor educator. Yet one finds in the creative act the essence of the self-directed individual. As psychological education comes to be an important part of the counselor's role, it may be anticipated that creativity training will be an important aspect of the total psychological education program.

CREATIVITY TO ELIMINATE BARRIERS

Ideas can come to a person in two ways. One way is through a flash of illumination that seems to come from nowhere. It is the "Eureka!" experience, called *primary creativity*. The recipient of the idea is not aware of the preconscious process his mind has gone through to produce that idea. The other way, *secondary creativity*, is a means of raising to a level of conscious awareness the fact that one's mind does indeed go through a creative process in producing new ideas and solutions to problems.

Introducing to people the notion of secondary creativity can help them arrive at consciousness of their own creative process so that they can more effectively put it to use. The emphasis in a course on creative behavior is on barriers to creative behavior and means of overcoming them. Crucial to breaking down barriers and becoming more creative are a willingness and an ability to approach a problem from a new perspective.
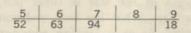
The barriers to creative behavior can be external and internal. External barriers are imposed on us by a relatively rigid social and educational order. The 16-square figure is an example of how we have conditioned ourselves to give what we think are "expected" responses. Too often we conform to what we think others want from us in order to be considered good citizens, moral persons, and so on. In his poem "Intimations of Immortality," William Wordsworth suggests that a child is born into the world with a spark inside him but that initial, individual spark in each of us fades as we conform more and more to the society around us.

Try this: Contemplate your own hand for two minutes and write down what you note. Really—stop and do it. Did you see colors you hadn't noticed before? Did you investigate taste, odor, shape, sensations, relation to other parts of the body? We have five senses, yet rarely do we use all of them in absorbing knowledge and facts. As another example, try this: If you are not a bird watcher, can you name 30 birds in a minute and a half? Most people say no, yet probably everyone can. There are canaries, parakeets, chickens, turkeys, owls, pigeons, sparrows, eagles, ducks, crows, swans, and pheasants, for a start. We know more about anything than we think we know. But it is easier to say no to a question than to try to figure out an answer. And by the way, how many of you actually tried these two experiments?
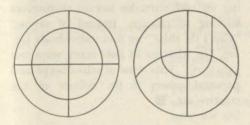
Although some habits we acquire serve us well, some mental habits are extremely detrimental. Habits tend to make us think in terms of previous solutions rather than new ones, even when we know the old solutions are not working. If I ask you to fold your hands as you normally do, I'm asking you to assume a physically comfortable position. If I ask you to change the way you fold your hands, you'll not feel quite so comfortable. (Try this; you'll be surprised.) Exercises in creative behavior encourage you to make the same kind of switch mentally. A chart I use requires the viewer to read the color in which the word is printed rather than the word itself, and the words on the chart are the names of colors—not the colors they're printed in. Being forced to look at a situation from a different framework, such as in this color chart, is a hard job for many. The job of the creativity teacher is to help the individual start the process of taking on new frames of reference.

There are numerous puzzles that can be given to groups to help them develop the practice of looking for alternative solutions. In this one, supply the missing number:

5	6	7	8	9
52	63	94		18

Did you figure it out? The numbers in the bottom row are the squares, with the digits reversed, of the numbers in the top row.

Can you cut a pie into eight pieces using only three cuts? This example is a good one because it illustrates a number of mind sets we have about pies—that pieces must be wedge-shaped, that cuts must be straight, that pieces must be equal in size, and so on. How about these:

What other ways are there?

TECHNIQUES FOR INCREASED IDEATION

The following techniques for seeking alternative solutions represent some general principles of creativity and are applicable in many ways to all academic subjects and group guidance sessions.

Brainstorming

This technique, used in a group session, is based on the principle of deferred judgment. It can be surprisingly effective in developing creative abilities and as an operational tool for producing ideas. Brainstorming operates under four important ground rules:

1. Criticism is ruled out. Judgment is suspended until subsequent evaluation.

2. Freewheeling is encouraged. The wilder the ideas the better; it is easier to tame down than to think up.

3. Quantity is wanted. The greater the number of ideas, the greater the chance for good ones.

4. Combination and improvement are sought. In addition to contributing ideas of their own, participants should point out how suggestions by others can be turned into better ideas or how two or more ideas can be combined into a still better idea.

Questions for brainstorming sessions begin with the phrase "In what ways. . . ." to illustrate that there is a multitude of possible solutions. Warm-up questions such as "In what ways might we improve a bathtub?" help to set the climate for more serious questions such as "In what ways might we promote better understanding between students and teachers in our school?"

Attribute Listing

This technique requires listing the various attributes of an object or an idea and then turning attention specifically to how each of the attributes can be improved. The object might be a common ballpoint pen, and the task would be to list as many of its attributes as possible, such as size, shape, color, weight, function, and so on. Then, concentrating on one of its attributes at a time, suggest how it might be changed or improved on. Another possibility is reorganizing the counseling program to promote greater efficiency. General attributes listed could be personnel, physical environment, communications, duties, student loads, and so forth. By breaking each of those general categories into its specific attributes, we begin to divide a large problem into improvable chunks.

Forced Relationship

This technique involves making associations between objects or ideas that are ordinarily considered unrelated. This

process helps train the mind to see unusual combinations. Take pairs of objects—shoes and pillows, refrigerators and windows, calendars and ashtrays—and see how many unusual combinations for each pair can be devised. The forced relationship technique can be readily adapted to any of the arts. For example, consider the use of mixed media. An excellent example of the use of forced relationships is the Morphological Approach to Story-Plotting (MASP), developed by Fran Striker, who, incidentally, wrote the "Lone Ranger" radio series. Here's how it works.

1. Divide a paper into four columns: Character, Goal, Obstacle, Result.

2. Individually, brainstorm in the first column 10 possible characters for a short story.

3. Do the same for each of the other columns, paying no attention to what has been written in previous columns.

4. When you have 10 in each column, arbitrarily select one item from each column. For better or for worse, you will have the four elements of a short story plot.

The MASP is a dramatic way of proving that one can come up with original ideas in large quantities. Ten items in each column means a possibility of 10,000 story plots.

CONCLUSION

We are all aware of the power of a positive self-concept. Perhaps the most explicit example of this is Leonardo da Vinci's answer when someone asked him what his greatest accomplishment was. He replied simply, "Leonardo da Vinci." Creativity training helps build strong self-concepts. Most of us fail to realize the potential we have within ourselves.

The role of the leader in creativity training is one of providing a climate that is nonjudgmental, of helping each individual to realize personal uniqueness and the uniqueness of others. The effec-

tive leader is concerned with constantly providing material that stretches the mind and that also has enough structure to give a foundation for dealing with new experience. Finally, a leader in creativity training must be big enough to get out of the way of other people's creativity. What has been traditionally referred to as a creative educator or counselor is one who has paraded his creativity in front of others. In reality, the creative leader is the one who provides situations in which others can try their hands at demonstrating creativity.

When people begin to realize that most of the time they are using only 15 percent of their creative potential and are now starting to employ techniques to release more of that potential, important things begin to happen. They see themselves doing things they never before thought possible; they see new capabilities opening up and attitudes toward themselves starting to change. Instead of saying, "Can I do this?" we find individuals saying, "In what or in how many ways can I do this?" This sense of self-concept and personal power is the essence of the creative act. ■

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GIFT

I want to give you something
though you can't have it right away.
It's not to be given quickly.
I want to give you something
that's in you.
Yes, it's quite like that.
Don't puzzle.
I can't tell you
what it is anyway.
You'll not find another
like what I want to give,
for there is no other.
It's all and only yours.
It's not wrapped or ribboned
I didn't buy it
or pick it up—
In fact, it's not really
mine to give,
and yet I would.

Come near
and go inside
and come out
out loud.
Time passes,
days   months
patience   love
energy   loneliness
pain and still
more pain.
Quietness
waiting
hope
time.

There.   Subtle at first
then strong.
I didn't really
give it to you
after all, did I.
I just gave you me
so you could become
what you wanted
most of all.
I'll go now.
You have it.
Your self.

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Numerous devices have evolved in human relations training to supplement and enhance learning that is the result of verbal interaction. Nonverbal techniques have become popular with both facilitators and laboratory participants. Below are listed several nonverbal exercises that facilitators may wish to use in group settings.

1. Exaggeration: A group member is asked to stand in front of another member and express his feelings toward the other member in a nonverbal manner and with exaggeration, as in mime.

2. Pass the Object: An object such as a pen, a book, or an ashtray is passed from member to member in a circle. Participants may do anything they wish with the object.

3. Posturing: The group forms itself into two seated lines, facing each other. Participants on one side are to assume all the physical postures of their opposites while the other side has a brief meeting. The purpose of this exercise is to attempt to increase empathic understanding of another person.

4. Seated Roll: A group member who needs to develop trust in the other members is asked to stand in the center of the group. Other members sit in a circle, pressing their feet tightly against the central member's feet. He closes his eyes and falls, and the others roll him around the circle, supporting him with their hands and feet.

5. Trust Walk: To study interpersonal trust, participants pair off, and each pair decides which of them is to lead and which is to be led on a blind walk. The leading may be done in one of several ways: by barely touching the person on the elbow, by holding hands only, by placing hands on shoulders from behind, by whispering verbal directions, etc. Afterward the pair reverses roles and repeats the walk.

6. Nature Walk: The group takes a walk outside, with no talking. Members are instructed to explore as much of the detail of their environment as they can and to communicate their feelings to each other without words.

7. Hand Talk: Participants pair off and spread out, and members of the pairs face each other and close their eyes. The facilitator announces that members of the pairs should take turns attempting to communicate nonverbally the feelings that the facilitator names, such as frustration, tension, joy, friendliness, anger, hate, elation, ecstasy, etc. The facilitator mentions each feeling separately, allowing about a minute for the partners' expression.

8. Back Lift: Group members form dyads, and partners sit back to back. They lock their arms together and attempt to stand. A variation of this exercise is to have the pairs stand back to back, locking arms, one member lifting the other off the floor.

9. Unwrapping: A member who is experiencing internal conflicts is asked to make himself into a tight ball. Another member is chosen by the first member to "unwrap" him, or open him up completely. The member may struggle against being unwrapped or may submit.

10. Eye Contact Circle: The group stands in a circle, and one member walks clockwise around the circle, establishing eye contact and communicating nonverbally to each other member until he returns to his original place. As soon as he has passed the member on his left (the one he first passed), that member follows him around the circle. The third member follows the second, etc., until all members have had contact with each other.

Self-determined behavior change

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Traditionally, behavioral approaches in elementary school counseling have been based on the assumption that children are to be directed in their change efforts by others. The project described in this article was concerned with discovering whether children can learn the language of behavior modification, identify their own behaviors, and determine the type of behavior change they want to happen. Instead of depending on teacher or counselor direction, can children assume more responsibility in determining their own futures?

The behavioral model presented here offers an important alternative in psychological education. By focusing on discrete behavior, the client and the counselor have several advantages. First, counselors can demonstrate more quickly that they can help, that something can be done—and done soon. Those who begin to see change occur are reinforced in their efforts to continue the change process. Perhaps most important, the behavior modifier helps people view themselves not as "sick" or deficient but as individuals who have learned some behaviors that have disadvantages, who see that they can change, and who begin to feel more powerful and more in control of their own lives.

There are, however, some serious criticisms of behavioral counseling. The two most prominent are that (a) behavior modification, especially with children, is a conforming and constricting process and (b) the behavior to be changed is most often determined by someone other than the individual. Simply put, adults are always deciding how kids should behave.

The conceptual framework for self-directed behavior change came from Ivey's (in press) media therapy work with hospitalized psychiatric patients. In media therapy, patients are videotaped for short periods of time, after which they self-select observable behaviors that may be changed and then, with the consultant-trainer, develop individualized plans for systematic behavior change. Based on training in communication skills as outlined in microcounseling (Ivey 1971), media therapy has proven to be a useful behavioral adjunct to the therapeutic process.

The project described here was an attempt to determine if elementary school children could learn skills of self-observation and then select and modify behavior of their own choice. Here, however, the goal was educational rather than therapeutic. The primary tool for change was the use of immediate video feedback, as used in media therapy and microcounseling. The objective was not to change maladjustive or inappropriate behavior but rather to allow children to change, improve, or add new behaviors as they saw fit. The individual child was to select the behavior and work with the counselor in devising strategies for change.

The procedures used in this project are similar to those of Mazza and Garris (1972) in that both studies focus on self-directed child behavior change. Mazza and Garris, however, videotaped the child in the classroom without the child's knowledge. Psychological education procedures, whether behavioral or humanistic, depend on shared decision making, and the methods used in this project

were therefore based on a consistent framework of openness between the child and the counselor. Further, the children in this study were taught specific methods of self-observation so that they could pinpoint their own behaviors without extensive questioning on the part of the counselor. The open teaching of transferable skills is an important aspect of psychological education.

CHILD-DETERMINED BEHAVIOR CHANGE

Sixteen fifth grade students were selected from a single classroom out of 24 volunteers. These students were given four half-hour instructional modules in observation and identification of behavior. The modules, which themselves may be viewed as one type of psychological education, were designed to familiarize the students with the idea of verbal and nonverbal behavior, help them learn what a discrete behavior is, and teach them how to observe and identify behavior in themselves and others.

Module #1

The students were introduced to the counselor and were told that they were going to become "behavioral scientists." In this first module the children were introduced to the concepts of discrete behavior, recurring behavior, and verbal and nonverbal behavior. Examples were given, and the children roleplayed the various behaviors.

Module #2

The children were asked to summarize Module #1 to ensure their ability to work with basic concepts of behavior modification. The concept of frequency counts in its most simple form was introduced. The students were then given the assignment of observing one single behavior at school or at home and counting its frequency over a short period of time.

Module #3

All the homework assignments were reviewed and discussed. The students were then shown a videotape of Module #1.

After an initial viewing, a 10-minute segment was replayed, and each student was asked to identify and count a single behavior that he or she was demonstrating.

Module #4

All students were shown a specially prepared roleplayed tape with six distinct recurring behaviors. The students were asked to identify at least four specific behaviors from the tape.

After participating in the instructional modules, the students were videotaped during their normal classroom activities for 30 minutes. The students then met individually with the counselor, were shown the videotape, and were asked to select any behavior they would like to change or choose a behavior not exhibited that they would like to learn. Some of the students' choices included: "I'm always looking at my feet when people talk to me." "I wish I could stop biting my fingernails." "Look how still Mary sits in her seat; I'm always rocking, rocking, rocking. I want to sit quietly."

Once specific behavior to be modified or learned was determined by the child, an individual learning plan was initiated. A single student and the counselor met for half an hour each day for one week to work at changing the behavior. All the sessions were videotaped. During each session, 5- to 10-minute segments of the tape were replayed so that the student could monitor the behavior. One student, for example, decided to work on sitting quietly in her seat. At first she sat in a rigid fashion and was uncomfortable. After seeing the videotape of herself, she realized that her behavior was unnatural and "funny looking." By experimenting and roleplaying, watching herself on tape, she soon decided, "That's the way I want to sit in my chair." This is what she worked at perfecting. Other students selected to work on behaviors such as "time on task" or nervous habits such as fingernail biting.

One week after the training sessions the student was again videotaped in the classroom. This tape provided a comparison with the original tape to determine if the behavior had changed in the actual classroom situation.

DOES IT WORK?

Can children learn the concepts of behavior modification? At the conclusion of the initial instructional modules, a roleplayed videotape was shown of two students engaged first in studying and then in conversation. It was found that all 16 students could meet the minimum criteria of selecting and recording at least four of the roleplayed behaviors. The evidence seems clear that children can learn basic concepts of behavior modification.

To determine whether the training in videotape feedback was useful in actually changing classroom behavior, the children were divided into two groups after they had identified the behavior they wanted to change. One group received media training as outlined above. The children in the other group were encouraged to change their behavior now that they had learned to identify it. Videotapes were made, and it was found that the children who had received the video training changed their behavior and exhibited it in the classroom. All the students who had had media training demonstrated that they could change their self-selected behavior in the direction they wished. Despite their knowledge of behavioral change principles, all of the children in the comparison group were unable to utilize their knowledge to develop desired behavior changes.

A review of the behaviors chosen revealed that all the students chose to change a behavior they saw as "wrong" or "bad." This suggests that children notice, at least initially, those behaviors that others have suggested need correction. This seems so despite the counselor's emphasis on the children's choosing

their own goals. It may be anticipated, however, that children could at a later point start generating and practicing "positive action" behaviors as they become more secure in their ability to control their own actions.

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

It was determined quite early in this project that children are capable of learning the basic skills of behavior identification and behavior modification. Counselors might well help children solve seemingly complex problems by breaking the problems down into simple behaviors that can be worked on one by one. Further, self-selection of behaviors provides children with an opportunity to determine what will happen.

Children in this project often selected negative behaviors they wished to change, and it is important to realize that this may represent a very real desire on their part to win approval and that the more systematic methods of this study provide a way through which a child can earn reinforcers. However, a bridge between the remedial aspects of behavioral approaches and the positive action methods of psychological education may be called for. Too often psychological education settles for ill-defined, somewhat mysterious goals. It would be possible to establish behavioral training labs in positive skills of human interaction. Models of children (or adults, for that matter) exhibiting human interaction skills could be developed on videotape, film, or audio cassettes. Students could then take part in this behaviorally oriented curriculum. Examples could include listening and counseling skills, study skills, how to talk with a friend, and sharing one's emotions and feelings with parents. Aldrige (1971), for example, found that junior high students could learn basic counseling skills through the microcounseling paradigm. Bizer (1972) has used basic attending skills as part of a parent training program. Students could enter such a laboratory voluntarily and, with consultation from a counselor, develop their own unique approaches to behavior change. The counselor in such a setting becomes a teacher of very important subject matter: the self.

The parallels between this effort and work with psychiatric patients are fascinating. The problems and concerns of the patient and the normal child seem very far apart, yet when defined from a behavioral perspective, many important structural similarities may be observed. Both groups seem to enjoy and profit from working on discrete, observable behaviors. Studies have shown that both groups use similar learning frameworks and vocabularies and that all gain from observation of their behavior on videotape.

The concept of self-selected behavioral change seems basic if psychological education is to include behavioral methods within its scope. An assumption of psychological education is that the learners are to control their own behavior. From this work and the original media therapy study, it may be anticipated that behavioral methods will prove to be powerful aspects of the psychological education movement. ∎

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Biofeedback and voluntary self-regulation: counseling and education

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While Skinner's behavioral engineering
by external controls has been receiving
considerable attention, a body of research
has been emerging that demonstrates
that man can guide his own destiny by
internal self-control. The last few years
have seen the development of biofeed-
back for helping persons learn to volun-
tarily regulate their own psychological
and physiological processes. Of special
interest to counselors and educators are
applications of voluntary control to ten-
sions and anxieties, depressions, access
to "unconscious" material, psychosomatic
reactions, learning, memory, and creative
insights. Of perhaps even more signifi-
cance, biofeedback training stands out as
a real breakthrough to truly voluntary
self-regulation with philosophical and
social consequences.

The professional literature in counsel-
ing and education, however, is nearly
devoid of even casual reference to bio-
feedback training for self-regulation and
self-development. The purposes of this
article are to begin to fill this void and
to encourage our colleagues to begin
applying this promising field to psycho-
logical processes.

WHAT IS BIOFEEDBACK?

Physiological feedback, or biofeedback,
is the instantaneous presentation of in-
formation to an individual about what is
happening in certain of his or her on-
going physiological processes such as
muscle tension, heart rate, temperature,
or brain waves. This information is fed
back directly to the individual by visual
or auditory electrophysiological devices.
With this immediate and objective feed-
back, a person learns to regulate these
normally involuntary processes.

As an illustration, many of us get
headaches from stress or tension. If some-
one with this kind of headache were to
go to a physician, the physician would
probably say, "Your problem is that
you're too tense." That's a form of feed-
back, but it neither gives much new in-
formation nor helps the headaches. And,
typically, such a diagnosis is followed by
a prescription for a drug.

As an alternative, your physician could
refer you to a biofeedback center. There
you could attach yourself to an instru-
ment that measures the amount of ten-
sion in your forehead and feeds this

information back to you immediately by a meter. In an exploratory way, you could practice making yourself more tense or less tense—"making the meter go up" and "making the meter go down." This initial exploratory practice would be followed by biofeedback training in deep muscle relaxation, during which the meter would "tell" you immediately if you were succeeding or failing. Through such feedback, you would learn to filter out from the welter of internal cues those you would then learn to manipulate to regulate your tension.

A BRIEF SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

Some biofeedback research has been directed at demonstrating voluntary control of specific physiological processes. Biofeedback training has taught self-regulation of such processes as heart rate, blood pressure, muscle tension, hand temperature, brain wave rhythms, galvanic skin response, salivation rate, simultaneous control of heart rate and blood pressure, and simultaneous voluntary control of forearm muscle tension, hand temperature, and alpha brain wave rhythm. This kind of training is being studied as a possible treatment for such medical problems as heart rate and blood pressure irregularities, epilepsy, and Raynaud's disease, as well as a source of electrical impulses to operate artificial limbs.

Counselors see persons suffering from psychosomatic symptoms—tension and migraine headaches, "clutching" on examinations, hypertension, insomnia, asthma, tics, overeating, gastric ulcers. All are amenable to voluntary self-regulation resulting from biofeedback training.

Of particular interest to counselors and educators is research demonstrating that voluntary control of psychological states accompanies voluntary control of physiological functions. Such research is directly applicable to those of us in counseling and education; it is therefore discussed in detail below.

This student is practicing absolute temperature feedback. A sensor is placed on the middle finger of the dominant hand. Increasing temperature is related to relaxation of the autonomic nervous system. Achieving this relaxation by "making the needle on the meter move to the right" is related to controlling migraine headaches, feelings of calmness, and increased awareness of bodily states.

APPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH TO COUNSELING AND EDUCATION

Restoring Man's Self-Image

Research in biofeedback is demonstrating that people can learn to voluntarily regulate their own psychological and physiological states. And they can do it with only minimal reliance on drugs, conditioning, and the intervention of others—in other words, with a minimum of external controls. This, of course, has considerable importance for psychological and medical services as well as for education.

The most important impact of biofeedback, though, may well be on man's conception of himself. In our society we have been taught that we are at the mercy of our involuntary nervous system, the Freudian "plumbing system" within each of us, and the shaping and

conditioning of the world around us. Medicine and psychology have encouraged these teachings. And such teachings have helped shape the concept most of us have about ourselves.

The low state of man's self-image seems reflected in our increasing reliance on dogmas, drugs, authority figures, law and order, and other external agents to manage our lives. Biofeedback is an important reversal of this history, as stated so well by Karlins and Andrews (1972).

For the first time [research is] showing that man can be the master of his own destiny rather than the slave of his juices. Every new disease, every mental state, every "involuntary" behavior brought under conscious control is a step toward revitalizing man's tarnished self-image. Not only does biofeedback training promise to enhance man's control of his internal states, it promises a renewed sense of *freedom and dignity* that will make his control both satisfying and fulfilling [p. 162].

What follows are applications of biofeedback training for the voluntary control of specific states and processes. The consequence of all of these is a change in the individual's self-conception. We cannot emphasize enough that this is the real impact of biofeedback—man's enhanced sense of worth, self-reliance, and autonomy.

Reaction to Stress

Each person seems to have his or her own physiological way of reacting to stress, whether by tensing the back and neck muscles, breathing rapidly, increasing the heart rate, or manifesting other physiological and biochemical responses. These changes arouse and intensify fear and anxiety, appropriately galvanizing a person to meet a physical threat. However, these potentially damaging habits can interfere with effective coping in the context of intellectual and social settings.

As counselors, we see the debilitating effects of these tension responses to stress and their concomitant expenditure of energy. And our way of helping clients

has been primarily by means of cognitive processes—"through the head." Biofeedback offers direct experience of these physiological reactions to stress with a minimum of intervention by us.

For example, the frontalis (forehead) muscle seems a crucial barometer of tension in many persons, though most are not aware of it until the level of tension is relatively high. Electromyographic (EMG) feedback training of this muscle usually results in a person's learning to decrease tension voluntarily and lower the tendency to overreact to stress.

Temperature, respiration, and brain wave alpha feedback training also seem to result in self-regulation of tension. Subjects learning to raise hand temperature by feedback training reported a concomitant feeling of calmness. Just one session of respiration training, with subjects listening to their amplified breath sounds, resulted in smoother and more regular breathing and a significant reduction in anxiety. Subjects in alpha feedback experiments reported that they learned to achieve relaxed, pleasant, peaceful states. An interesting example is some unpublished work on providing "whole head" alpha feedback for hard-core psychiatric referrals. Electrodes were placed at occipital, parietal, and frontal leads, and the patients practiced for about 30 hours, scattered over several weeks. Most of these patients quit seeing their therapist voluntarily and described themselves as different people. These self-reports were substantiated by the attending psychiatrist and by family members.

Desensitization

In desensitization the client is gradually and systematically confronted with a phobia or fear (e.g., claustrophobia, fear of heights, fear of examinations) while he is deeply relaxed. Systematic confrontation with the feared images, while in a relaxed state, results in a gradual loss of the phobia or fear. Typically, this procedure has been time-consuming, since

the counselor has had to lead the client in relaxation exercises.

Thomas Budzynski and Johann Stoyva at the University of Colorado Medical School have used EMG feedback training for relaxation in helping persons overcome phobias. They helped one young woman free herself of her fear of crowds, fear of heights, fear of riding in cars, claustrophobia, and panic attacks. They also helped a 42-year-old management consultant learn to overcome his anxiety of public speaking and a 45-year-old woman her extreme anxiety at social gatherings.

An outstanding advantage in using EMG feedback during desensitization is that both client and counselor recognize increased tension much sooner, as anxiety producing situations are imagined by the client. Thus, anxiety does not get as readily associated with scenes to be visualized.

Access to "Unconscious" Material

A potential application has been suggested for those of an analytic persuasion, those interested in learned and "forgotten" material, or those interested in transpersonal psychology. (For a definition of transpersonal psychology, see Astor 1972 and the Statement of Purpose that appears in every issue of the *Journal of Transpersonal Psychology*.) Green, Green, and Walters (1970), at the Menninger Foundation, have been training subjects to increase alpha and theta brain waves and thereby achieve a state of reverie. While in this state, subjects often experience vivid hypnagogiclike images that they learn to bring to conscious awareness and describe, thus gaining new insights about themselves. The combination of alpha and theta feedback seems to facilitate extending self-awareness over normally unconscious processes.

EMG feedback also suggests that low EMG levels are correlated with theta and slowed alpha rhythms. Individuals trained to lower their forehead EMG levels report having experiences that sound very much like those associated with hypnagogiclike states. Perhaps work combining EMG and electroencephalographic (EEG) feedback training would result in a more voluntarily sustained state of reverie. The result would be increased production of primary process material and free associations, learned and forgotten information, or other normally unconscious material, all of which would potentially benefit counseling and growth processes.

It is interesting to note that autogenic training, a well-articulated training system for developing voluntary control, deals with access to unconscious material. This system, developed by Johannes Schultz in Germany around 1910 and elaborated on later by Wolfgang Luthe (1969), begins with several standard exercises and progresses toward advanced exercises that eventuate in "getting answers and insights."

New Realms

Budzynski (1972) has suggested that the combination of EMG and EEG feedback might be a more satisfying and productive alternative to drug use.

Consider those seekers of new inner experiences who might be persuaded to give up "heavier" agents such as LSD or other drugs, if they could achieve interesting highs through a biofeedback procedure which could be used at home. The exploration of biofeedback-produced experiential states will probably become as commonplace as Yoga is today [p. 112].

Reading, Learning, Memory, and Creativity

Frequent references of applications to education appear in the biofeedback literature. Yet these are just beginning to receive the attention of research studies. A few of the applications will be mentioned here.

Subvocalization, the tendency to mouth words silently while reading, limits the reading speed one can achieve. EMG

feedback of the larynx muscles helps most subvocalizers overcome the habit in from one to three hours.

More effective learning of new material and solving of concrete problems appear to be related to increased production of the beta brain waves. On the other hand, memory seems to be related to alpha brain waves. Biofeedback-trained subjects who produced the greatest amount of alpha rhythm while speaking with their eyes open showed the greatest memory retrieval, i.e., scored highest on a delayed recall test.

A state of reverie, approached through alpha and theta feedback training, seems to be linked with creativity. In studies of highly creative individuals, the individuals have described similar states of reverie in which creative solutions or inspirations seemingly spring into consciousness, much as the hypnagogiclike imagery "suddenly appears" in persons who have learned to enhance their alpha-theta production.

The EEG or other physiological correlates of attention could control teaching machines. When the student's attention is at a maximum, information would be presented at the maximum rate; as attention decreased, the rate would be slower; if attention were absent, an alerting or waking signal would be given.

A New Course of Study

Educational development in an individual results from the interplay of many forces. Although the school is just one factor in the complicated pattern, it is nevertheless the most deliberate and conscious of all the forces. What could be more appropriate than to include in the regular curriculum a course of study directed toward placing the power for self-development in the hands of the individual students?

Learning voluntary control of single bodily processes could perhaps begin in elementary school. This could progress through experience in learning to control multiple processes. Understanding of the concomitant psychological states and their voluntary self-regulation could follow. With this new type of knowledge, students would be able to learn how to "shift" themselves into that psychophysiological state most appropriate for the task at hand. For example, they could learn to achieve voluntarily that state of attention most conducive to learning new material; could shift easily to that state associated with nonanxious, efficient recall for taking tests; could alter their state for performing physical activities.

This course of study also opens up a whole new area of study for the student: his inner world. As Westerners, we have been led to believe that the area within our skin is disgusting—ugly emotions to be controlled or bodily processes to be ignored. Biofeedback is demonstrating that from this "inner space" come creative, intuitive knowledge and insights. When integrated with the cognitive knowledge now emphasized in our schools and colleges, this inner knowledge adds dimensions that have been limited mostly to philosophical and theoretical contemplation.

Records could be kept of each student's physiological patterns and overt responses. These records could provide for truly individually adapted programs based on each student's learning, types of short- and long-term memory, special skills, and cognitive styles. Individuals could be taught, relatively efficiently and painlessly, how to cultivate their own unique potentials.

And biofeedback training does this by putting the power to alter behavior in the hands of the individual. This is counter to some current methods that use mood-changing drugs to control the behavior of hundreds of thousands of American schoolchildren or that use systematic conditioning of behavior and other external agents or authorities. Of these technologies, biofeedback is the

first to rely on individuals' ability to guide their own destiny.

WHAT CAN BE DONE NOW?

It has been established that biofeedback training results in learned, voluntary self-regulation. Techniques are now available for helping persons achieve voluntary self-regulation of their own psychophysiological states as a natural, normal part of daily life. It seems appropriate that counselors and educators begin evaluating seriously their role in this new and important area.

A way to begin is to augment one's study in the area by training oneself in voluntary control. Biofeedback instruments cost roughly from $150 up.[1] Or you can begin the way one of us did— borrow a digital thermometer and thermister from a university engineering department and train yourself to raise and lower your hand temperature. Or perhaps some friend has a physiological instrument to which a meter or lights could be attached for feedback. The area is still rather new; instruments are not readily available in most places, so persistence will be a blessing. We know— from experience.

Important sources for additional information on biofeedback training are Barber and others (1971a, 1971b) and Stoyva and others (1971). And there are other systems for learning voluntary control and self-regulation. Important among these is the work of Haugen, Dixon, and Dickel (1963) and Jacobson (1970).

IN CONCLUSION

In this article we have focused on specific applications of biofeedback and on the technique itself. This we have done to acquaint counselors and educators with the potential of this newly emerging technique and to give some ideas about ways to begin using it.

To end on these technical and specific aspects, however, would be to ignore the broader and even more significant implications of this field. The importance of biofeedback for enhancing voluntary control can hardly be overstated. Voluntary self-regulation is of primary importance in shaping and revitalizing people's self-image so that they can become more aware of themselves and also more aware of their relationships with others. The effects of self-regulating individuals will be of incalculable significance. Persons with voluntary control over their own behavior would not only *not* be a problem, but they would also make it easier for others to attain a more stable and yet creative life. ■

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Programmatic Approaches

A number of systematically organized and well-tested psychological education programs already exist. These vary in length from short workshops to entire K–12 curriculums.

Everyone wants to know how to motivate learners. McMullen describes a prototype course designed to increase people's achievement motivation. Achievement motivation is broad in its relevance to different age groups and in its applications. Similarly, promoting psychological development has been stressed in the counseling literature for a decade without having a systematic program to accomplish this goal. The articles by Gum, Tamminen, and Smaby and by Palomares and Rubini illustrate how psychological development can be promoted directly through a combination of psychological and educational techniques.

Another program based on developmental theory is Scharf, Hickey, and Moriarty's training in increasing the level of moral reasoning, unique in its application to prison populations and in its refusal to espouse any specific moral answer.

Together all of these course descriptions illustrate the power of psychological theory in focusing on significant goals in specifying course content and in guiding the practice of psychological educators.

The achievement motivation workshop

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"They are not only disinterested in school, they seem disinterested in anything else. But, of course, they see so much in school as being irrelevant to them and the real world—maybe that's why they seem so unmotivated."

This familiar utterance was spoken by a high school teacher seated at a student's desk in a classroom in a Hartford, Connecticut, high school to a small group of teachers, guidance counselors, and a school administrator. We were all participating in a week-long workshop on achievement motivation.

"Let's share with each other what we expect to get out of this workshop. . . ."

"How to motivate my students. . . ."

"Learn to help my students set realistic goals . . . to achieve."

"Find out what motivation means. . . ."

Motivation. The word always comes up among teachers talking about their problem students and among guidance counselors talking about those same students. Usually when that word is brought into such talk, it stops all further constructive problem solving activity. The image is that of wanting to check out an engine that cannot be started because the battery is too low—and we have neither the equipment nor the know-how to charge it up. But just

as we really do have the physical technology available to charge up that battery, we also have available to us the psychological technology to increase motivation. Workshops such as the one mentioned above have as their objective the developing of a specific motive: the achievement motive. These workshops have been documented as being quite successful through measurements of increased achievement related activity in the post-workshop behavior of the participants (Alschuler 1973).

THE NATURE OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

What is achievement motivation? Well, when their achievement motive is charged up, people appear to us alert, self-confident, and going about the business of meeting realistic but challenging goals they've set for themselves. They are doing something better than they have done it before, or competing hard against someone else, or working on new approaches to solving tough problems. They are driving and competitive. They are taking charge of their own lives, examining their environment and choosing carefully—but not overcautiously—among the alternatives they see. They are striking out toward their clearly de-

fined and challenging goals with purpose, responsibility, and dispatch, and they are enjoying their involvement in these pursuits. We can almost see these achievement thoughts, feelings, and actions in a person like Mark Spitz in a swimming meet, Althea Gibson on the tennis court, Howard Roark designing his buildings.

The students we counsel are not superachievers like Mark Spitz. Many of my students and those of other counselors and educators I know even go so far as to announce clearly their complete rejection of the values of the achiever. All of us have heard a variation of this: "Push, push, push. Compete. Knock yourself out getting ahead. That's the trouble with this society, the United States. All this competition is crushing people, exploiting undeveloped countries, and polluting our environment. We need *love*, not more achievement. Me and my friends are going to join a commune and forget all this action."

That used to be the typical middle class white adolescent's antiachievement song, but lately the refrain is being picked up by the lower class white adolescent as well. I have also heard from young blacks (and Chicanos and Puerto Ricans): "Forget this honky shit, man. That's that capitalistic, materialistic property value shit what's got us all messed up now. Achievement my ass. Power's what's happening, baby, and you better believe it. That's the only way we're going to get anywhere."

The nature of the problems posed by the above caricatures is certainly of a different order than those of our more typical problem students: those who have low or no aspirations, the reckless ones who run at things ill prepared and constantly fail, those who try to enlist us as allies in their pursuit of goals that are clearly unreasonable. However, the complex of thinking, feeling, and action strategies that comprise the achievement syndrome has, I think, something relevant and substantive to offer all these students.

Yes, we can certainly use more love among and between us. But love is not going to feed that commune. Someone, if not everyone, is going to be concerned with increasing yield per acre of the crops or improving the nutritional quality of the corn. Those concerns with improvement and increase are properly achievement related concerns.

Okay, brothers, we're going to get some power. Planning a strategy, researching the environment, and utilizing resources all come into play. After we get that power, brother, won't we want to be planning for quality and innovation in education, good housing, excellent medical care, and the best of goods and services we can offer to all our people? Such concerns for clear and imaginative planning and for excellence are again a part of what we call the achievement syndrome.

All of these parts, when fit together in our thoughts and actions, function as an inextricably interrelated whole that we call the achievement motive. And it has been taught successfully to teachers, counselors, and students. For the guidance counselor who is tired of trying to convince students to take courses of action toward goals that appear—to the counselor—to be good for those students, or the guidance counselor who is continually chafing under the responsibility of trying to get youngsters to see themselves as others see them and to modify their behavior accordingly, the inclusion of such students in a heterogeneous group of about 15 or 20 students and the guidance of that group through an achievement motivation workshop will go a long way toward shifting the responsibility of personal goal setting and goal attainment to where that responsibility belongs—with the student.

It is now time for the reader to be skeptical. We know that Bayer aspirin offers some relief and that Bufferin acts

twice as fast, but can achievement motivation cure multiple guidance office headaches within the space of one workshop?

No. Achievement motivation is not *the* answer and is not a panacea. The well-functioning, healthy human being has affiliation needs and power needs, as our antiachievement student caricatures indicated. But we cannot deny that the ability to set and achieve goals effectively also is an important element of our mental health and pursuit of happiness. It is for this reason that I urge the innovative counselor to explore further the uses and possibilities of the achievement motivation workshop. The 25 years of psychological research that have gone into the development of this powerful psychological educational tool has been packaged in a format that makes it possible for counselors or teachers to conduct inservice workshops for their peers as well as workshops for students.

HOW THE WORKSHOP WORKS

How does this psychological education device called an achievement motivation workshop proceed? A typical motivation course, whether it is an intensive 32-hour weekend, a five-day conference, or a semester's or a whole school year's work, follows the same sequence of six steps.

Step 1: Attending

You must first get the students' attention. This can be done by finding a new setting outside the participants' routine environment in which to hold the sessions. For many students the nongraded nature of the course and the fact that it is the students who evaluate the course for relevance, effectiveness, and usefulness are enough of a departure from the norm to get their interest in what is going on. I have also found that sharing with the students the idea that the course will give them some psychological insight into

when, how, and why people behave differently serves sufficiently as a "grabber."

Step 2: Experiencing

The students actually experience, through a game or roleplay, the behavior, thinking, and feeling that is associated with the achievement motive. Exempli gratia: Mark off several distances from a wastebasket and ask your students one by one to pick, without conferring with one another, a distance from which to throw three wads of paper into the basket. Follow the exercise with a discussion "processing the experience," concerning (a) the different distances chosen and the differing probabilities of success as they interact with both the distance and the individuals' ability and (b) the feelings of players and audience during the exercise. These experiences related to the achievement syndrome lead to the third step in the sequence.

Step 3: Conceptualizing

Out of the experience, students learn to label the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that relate to achievement motivation by using a special vocabulary. They begin to practice recognizing these elements of achievement motivation when they occur in themselves and in others—"achievement goals" (as opposed to plain old "task imagery"), "world obstacles," "personal obstacles," "moderate risks," "using concrete feedback," "fear of failure," "hope of success." This vocabulary helps students organize their observations into a conceptual whole. These first three steps are repeated in different ways in the course until students are very comfortable in their understanding of what the achievement motive is. They can now ask or be asked, "So what? Is it relevant?"

Step 4: Relating

The students then consciously explore what relevance this new knowledge of

motivation has to their own life values, goals, and behaviors. Other motives, such as the need for affiliation and the need for power, and their interrelationships are discussed. Case studies and discussion, private contemplation and reflection are all encouraged and accepted as the subject matter of this step. The answers to the final questions of the sequence—"Now what? What do I *do* with this?"—depend on the resolution of this important key question of relevance.

Step 5: Applying

Students are free to develop applications of this knowledge to their life—if they wish to. The choice to accept or reject the chance to work on consciously increasing the achievement motive is really given to the student. Because all achievement related goals are acceptable at this point, from modest but challenging self-improvement projects to grand career designs, almost all students will choose to at least give it a try.

Step 6: Internalizing

Practice makes perfect. The course instructor works out a gradually diminishing contact schedule that helps students keep track of their progress but also fosters their independence. The continual planning, replanning, modifying, measuring, and even changing of one's goals and activities are all part of the students' process of making this newly refined approach a permanent part of their repertoire of behaviors. If the students see the achievement syndrome as important and relevant to them, they will apply it consciously and voluntarily to their everyday endeavors. In that application process they will be internalizing the motive. The degree to which they have internalized the motive can be assessed by observing their behavior or by interviewing them at some later date and looking at their plans and activities in terms of how well the plans correlate with achievement thinking and goal setting.

CONCLUSION

Achievement motivation training is no panacea for the problems of unrealistic, apathetic, avoidant, or turned-off youngsters, but it can be an important tool for these youngsters to use in gaining more responsibility and control over their lives and increasing their ability to take a positive direction in acting on their environment. The counselor should be aware that a real and possible outcome of an achievement motivation workshop is that some students may set individual goals in which school (that is, the typical traditional public secondary school that now exists) plays no significant role at all. In fact, it has been found that many high achievers have not done well in school because school activities, outside of athletics and shop, do not typically support, reinforce, or foster achievement thought and action. Some few atypical schoolteachers at large in the land have launched a bold and direct attack on this problem of the antiachieving climate that pervades many of our schools. They have conducted achievement motivation workshops with their students and have followed up those workshops by drastically modifying their classroom learning and teaching styles to create an atmosphere that will support and nurture their students' achievement motivation.

Materials and texts on achievement motivation to support such endeavors are available through various educational publishers. Adventurous counselors are invited to join the small but growing band of educational innovators by testing this achievement motivation boosting device in their own work situations. ∎

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GARDEN

I am lonesome
for me
not friends
not work
not even touch
but time
to unpack
the secrets
and surprises
of what I know
is there
no here
in me
my own
body
spirit
mind
and tears.
I want
to go apart
to name
the flowers
and the weeds
before winter comes
freezing into
crystal stone
the rich
and fragile
garden
of my life.

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Developmental guidance experiences

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For many years the counselor education staff of the University of Minnesota—Duluth has been concerned about the roles and functions of counselors as they relate to the kinds of changing educational needs discussed in this issue. In 1966–67 one member of the staff conducted a comprehensive statewide evaluation of guidance functions and their impact. Finding minimal measurable impact and noting the fact that the most effective guidance input turned out to be the manner in which the counselor related to students and colleagues, the study concluded that counselors should spend less time in "putting out fires" and should attempt to become a "force for the facilitation of the full development of persons within the school environment . . . doing all they can to . . . facilitate change [such as promoting] the full development of individual students [Tamminen & Miller 1968]."

At about the same time, another member of the staff was creating a model of developmental counseling (Gum 1969) that was used as the basis for implementing a developmental approach in our training program. This approach was used initially at the elementary level; however, based on the positive responses of pupils, teachers, principals, and par-

ents, as well as the results of evaluation, it has been extended to the high school level and beyond.

The approach involves the use of structured developmental guidance experiences (DGE's), which provide practical techniques for classroom use by both counselors and teachers. A useful framework within which to plan such experiences is Havighurst's "developmental task" concept. According to Havighurst:

A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success in later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by society, and difficulty with later tasks [1953, p. 6].

Although one may take issue with some aspects of the model, the basic developmental concepts are sound and can easily be adapted to different localities, circumstances, social classes, and life styles by people who know their target groups. The developmental task may serve as a bridge between an individual's needs and societal demands, and the total framework of such tasks provides a comprehensive network of important psychosocial learnings essential for healthy individual development in our society.

All members of the class, including the counselor and the teacher, take part in DGE's and freely interact with each other. These third graders are engaging in a DGE in which they are trying to guess who in their class is being described.

EXAMPLES OF DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS

What child between the ages of 6 and 12 does not experience a need to learn physical skills necessary for ordinary games, to learn to get along with peers, to learn to behave appropriately for his or her sex? What adolescent does not recognize the need to accept her or his physique, to achieve independence from parents, to clarify vocational goals? There are other developmental tasks that the child or adolescent may not be as directly aware of, such as the need to develop morality, a sense of values, an ethical guide to behavior. Yet the presence of such needs is evidenced by the eagerness with which they participate in developmental guidance experiences dealing with these matters.

DGE's are structured experiences based on Havighurst's developmental tasks and designed to promote healthy sociopsychological development. The use of DGE's shifts the focus of the counselor's activity from the emphasis on remedial efforts, which are conducted largely on a one-to-one basis, to a greater stress on working with groups of pupils and with significant others such as teachers, parents, and peers, with the emphasis on sound, normal affective growth of all pupils. This new emphasis takes the counselor out of the office and into the world where students (and teachers) live and introduces the counselor to students as someone really interested in them and their vital concerns. This makes the counselor more "real" and psychologically available when needed for help with individual problems.

In general, DGE's are designed to encourage open, frank discussion about all sides of ethical or value issues related

to developmental tasks rather than impose some "official" view on students. For example, with respect to middle childhood task number one—learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games—how should children deal with the human issues that arise when awkward or physically disadvantaged classmates are continually bypassed in choosing up sides for games? A DGE can open the door to a discussion of this issue—free of adult moral judgment and in an atmosphere in which natural empathic feelings can develop and be expressed.

DGE's are also designed to help students become more aware of their feelings and to practice expressing them. For example, sometimes students separate themselves by sex, continually argue with and tell demeaning jokes and stories about the other sex, and seem embarrassed or are overly demonstrative regarding normal heterosexual relationships. Such students may need help in relating with each other; this help can be provided by DGE's dealing with adolescent task number one—achieving new and more mature relationships with peers of both sexes. The first of the three following examples addresses itself to that developmental task.

A Sexual Developmental Task

At East High School in Duluth, Mary Lou Warnygora, a counselor trainee, facilitated several DGE's based on the aforementioned task with 27 high school juniors in a history class. The specific purpose of one of these DGE's was to discuss sex role attitudes expressed by members. This was accomplished by having the students read the following simple story and ranking the characters.

A young girl is deeply in love with her boyfriend, who lives across the river due to forces beyond his control. The girl's parents are very happy about this, as they do not want them to go together for various reasons. As a result of this, the girl runs away, as she wants so much to be with her love. She runs to the river and becomes aware of the fact there is no way within

her means to get across the river and be with her boyfriend. She soon sees a boat coming and explains her story to the boatman. He offers to take her across, but only if she will make love to him. Our girl does not feel right about this proposition and runs off into the woods to think the matter through. In the woods she meets an old hermit, who hears her story with attentive ears. The girl asks the hermit what she should do in her desperation, and he says, "Do what you think is right. I feel you will find the right answer within yourself."

After thinking the matter through, the girl goes back to the river, carries out the boatman's proposition, and finally is with her love. She explains the whole story to him, and he realizes he can no longer accept this girl after what has happened. He realizes that she does not represent the ideals which are so important to him. He breaks off the relationship, and the girl is left alone in the world. She finally meets up with the "perfect couple," who listen to her story, feel very deeply for her, and adopt her.

The students were then given the following instructions: "Now you are to rank the people in the story (parents, girl, boy, boatman, hermit, "perfect couple") in an order of preference you hold for them. Attempt to be as honest about your feelings and views as possible. Try and focus on why you ranked them as you did."

After the students completed the ranking, they shared and defended their points of view. There was some discussion of relationships with adults, but most of the discussion centered around the boy-girl relationship and similar real-life attitudes and problems. Volunteers played the roles of the girl and the boy as the girl explained her decision about the boatman to the boy. The counselor then posed the following question: "What if the *boy* had wanted to cross and had been propositioned by a boatwoman?" It was evident from the subsequent discussion that a double standard relating to sex was held by many students.

A hand vote was taken as to how students felt about the double sex standard. None of the 14 males supported a male-

These senior high school students in a social studies class, along with a counselor, are role-playing a decision making incident in which a number of people are going to be left out of a party.

favoring standard, and 7 girls did not, but 6 girls had mixed feelings. Eight items selected from a subordination-of-women scale (Nadler & Morrow 1959) were then administered, and all the males indicated that women should be subordinate to men. This discrepancy and the value confusion it reflects became the topic of the next DGE.

In addition, five scale items and four incomplete sentences were given to the 27 students. On the scale items, 23 or more students checked the favorable choice on each one: They enjoyed the experience, they participated, they felt more relaxed than usual when discussing sex, they learned about others' feelings, and they felt the experience was worthwhile. Following are some typical answers to the incomplete sentences.

DGE's gave me a chance to: "find out how my ideas differed from the kids in class," "get to talk and smile at someone I didn't know," "understand males more," "learn about everyone else."

During DGE's I found myself: "really getting involved instead of just sitting back in a little corner," "somewhat embarrassed during the sex discussion, but I learned many things I wanted to know," "thinking about my faults and how I could improve myself," "getting wrapped up in the discussion."

I would rather participate in a DGE than: "any other activity," "regular class," "have a discussion led by a person on the same thing," "sit bored listening to a lecture in other classes," "most other things," "bake cookies."

DGE's are: "a lot of fun, you can really let go and say what's on your mind," "mind-expanding," "nice to get to know someone without being afraid," "okay, okay," "the thing."

Achieving Emotional Independence

In a speech class at Duluth Ordean Jr. High School, counselor John McAllister conducted DGE's to help 23 ninth graders achieve adolescent task number four—achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults. The specific purpose of one DGE was to help students develop a more mature understanding of adult viewpoints. First, a list of six common friction points was compiled through class discussion. The points agreed on were: dress and personal appearance, choice of friends, leisure activities, helping around the house, smoking and drugs, and curfews. Then all students ranked the conflicts in order of importance at their home and wrote down some of the arguments their parents used in the conflicts. A discussion followed that explored these questions: How does your ranking compare with that of others? How do your parents' arguments compare with others? Which arguments seem reasonable and which unreasonable?

Following the discussion, an eight-item, 5-point scale was administered. The relevance of the discussion was shown by the fact that most students reported "frequent" arguments with their parents on these topics. All students indicated that they had expressed their true feelings during the DGE; two-thirds felt they had changed their previous opinions about parent-teenager relationships. Over three-fourths wanted more DGE's on this topic. In the counselor's clinical judgment, a majority of the students appeared to gain greater understanding and appreciation of their parents' views. More DGE's followed.

Younger Children

Lyle Hammerschmidt, a counselor in training, conducted a series of DGE's at Endion Elementary School in Duluth with 26 fourth graders randomly selected out of two classes, the remaining 25 students being used as controls. The subjects did DGE's for eight weeks (half of them once a week, the other half twice a week). A number of the DGE's were based on developmental task number three—getting along with peers.

In one DGE, the students were placed in small groups and given a paper puzzle to put together. The puzzle was made by cutting an 8x11 sheet of colored paper into six odd shapes. The groups worked competitively at the task, a difficult one, which was continued until they became frustrated. Then they were stopped, and the entire class discussed what had happened in the small groups—how they felt, how they reacted to each other, and what might be done about the behaviors and feelings shown. Among the observations made in the discussion were: "Nobody listened to my ideas," "John acted like he was the only one who could do it," "Mary kept putting them together in dumb ways," "I wanted to be the first to get it done," "I got so mad I wanted to hit Bill." Much discussion ensued regarding how they felt about themselves and others and what it means to have such feelings.

The experimental and control groups were compared on pre- and post-tests over the eight-week period. The experimentals increased significantly more in their liking for each other and also in the amount of discussion and distribution of discussion among all members, as shown in a special problem solving situation.

SUMMARY

The three DGE's described above are samples of over 200 such experiences conducted this past year by counselors trained at the University of Minnesota—Duluth. It is evident that experiences of this type vary greatly in their sophistication and probably in their effectiveness as well and that a great deal of research is needed. We and our students have

carried out such research; our pilot efforts have proved very encouraging. We are continuing our research and further implementing this developmental guidance model by creating a program for the training of new counselors at all levels. The program also provides in-service training for practicing counselors and teachers in methods useful in promoting psychosocial growth in classroom settings. We feel we are making progress in learning to provide appropriate developmental experiences—in sequential order at the "teachable moment"—for the purpose of enhancing healthy affective development in students. ■

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Human development in the classroom

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"Elephant," declared a curly-haired six-year-old.

"Elephant," repeated his teacher after a pause. "Would you like to tell us something about it?"

"It has a long nose and it's big." David smiled toothlessly as he stood up and stretched his arms wide apart to illustrate.

His teacher nodded. "Yes, it *is* big. Thank you for telling us about your word, David."

As he returned to his seat, Lisa wiggled impatiently. "I have a word—hot wheels! It goes fast and makes a big noise. RRRRmmmm." Several of her classmates repeated the "RRRRmmmm," and the teacher praised her for contributing to the group.

In this first grade classroom, eight children and their teacher were seated in a circle, telling words that they knew and explaining something that they knew about the words. They were working on a "mastery in language" task in this session of their daily Magic Circle. After the circle session, the school counselor, who was observing, spoke supportively to the teacher, reinforcing the communication skill the teacher had used when she asked an open-ended question to help David describe his word. As a consultant to the teacher, the counselor continued

his encouragement of the active listening skills the teacher had learned during the training session the counselor had led at the beginning of the school year. "David beamed when you repeated part of his description. I could see that he was not only showing you and his classmates his power, but also himself. You really supported his feeling."

Later in the same day the counselor demonstrated a circle session to a fourth grade teacher who had asked for help on a problem. This teacher had begun using the magic circle with his class and was having difficulty with some disruptive behavior. He began a unit on "awareness," and the class was discussing pleasant and unpleasant feelings. During a discussion of bad feelings, some of the children began acting out in the circle. The teacher remembered that he had learned in the training session that an atmosphere of acceptance should prevail in the circle, so he was hesitant to discipline those who were misbehaving. Before beginning the demonstration, the counselor explained to the teacher that the feeling is always accepted but that disruptive behavior is not condoned.

During the circle session, with the counselor as facilitator, the children talked about something that made them feel bad. One of the boys told about how

For twenty minutes each day, these students and their teacher explore their thoughts and feelings through group activities in the magic circle.

someone had made him angry during recess. A classmate had taken his baseball and thrown it on the roof. The boy still felt very bad, so he tried to kick the girl sitting next to him in the circle. The counselor stopped him and said, "I can see that you are angry, and I can understand that, but you may not kick Diane." The counselor modeled acceptance of the child's feelings while discouraging the hostile behavior.

Both of the above situations are examples of the Human Development Program implemented in a public school with the school counselor acting as a teacher trainer and consultant. The magic circle is the process by which the teacher and students explore their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors on a daily basis. The teacher is trained to act as the group facilitator, making sure that every child is invited to share and is listened to. The teacher introduces the task as suggested in the lesson guide and

models active listening and positive behaviors. In time the teacher will turn the leadership over to the students so that they will also be given practice in positive behavior patterns. Because these behaviors are repeated on a daily basis and the tasks are sequential in nature, the child develops positive patterns of behavior. As a curricular approach to preventive mental health, the Human Development Program focuses on a developmental model to promote social and emotional growth in children. It teaches little people to get in touch with themselves so that they can become more responsible for their choices and their actions.

The counselor's role in training, critiquing, coaching, and follow-up in the Human Development Program is further discussed later in this article. Although this article stresses elementary classroom uses, the same concepts have validity for older students and adults.

AWARENESS, MASTERY, AND SOCIAL INTERACTION

The Human Development Program focuses on three main themes: (a) awareness (knowing our feelings, thoughts, and actions); (b) mastery (self-confidence); and (c) social interaction (knowing other people). As children grow older, they begin to bury their feelings and thoughts, unconsciously distorting their expressions and actions. They start to feel that they are different, inferior, socially unacceptable. This feeling of negative uniqueness has been created in our society by a conspiracy of silence. Nobody talks about fantasies, dreams, wild thoughts, feelings of helplessness, loneliness, feelings of worthlessness. Children are educated away from validating their own feelings. When they are afraid, they are told that there is nothing to be afraid of. When they feel pain, they are told to be brave and smile. They conclude at an early age that what is going on inside of them is unique, suspect, and unsayable.

In the magic circle, children are given an opportunity to develop an awareness of their positive *and negative* feelings, positive *and negative* thoughts, and constructive *and destructive* behaviors. They discuss the discrimination between real and fantasy, their ambivalence and fears, and the issues involved in making commitments, all of which help to dispel the delusion of uniqueness. For instance, a kindergarten student ran home from school, bubbling with excitement over that day's circle session. "Guess what, Mom? Lanny's afraid of the dark; Kathy's afraid of the dark; and Paul's afraid of the dark too! I'm not so silly after all!" This child had learned that his classmates were very much like him. Awareness topics such as "I had a very scary dream," "One way I wish I could be different," or "Something I wish for that is impossible" help children realize that actually we are much more like each

A counselor (seated) is critiquing a video-tape of a magic circle led by a teacher (standing).

other than we are different from each other.

Schools haven't capitalized on the sense of mastery—the motivation that put human beings on the moon. Mastery is what motivates a child to balance himself on a railroad track when it is easier to walk along the side. It is the reason people jeopardize their lives to climb a mountain. It feels so good to say, "I did that, and it was hard." Mastery activities are designed to enhance children's feelings about themselves and their control of their environment. In a preschool mastery circle, children can feel their power when they do the task "I can relax," making their bodies limp like a rag doll's, and their teacher recognizes it: "You can really relax."

Another factor that has been built into the concept of mastery in the Human Development Program is that of responsible competence, or developing capabilities with a deep sense of responsibility

to one's fellowman. Self-confidence and competence are not enough in themselves. Adolf Hitler was a very competent man, but at other people's expense. Responsible competence deals with the value of all human beings. We all can be winners by bettering ourselves while respecting the lives of others: I build a paper mill, but I don't dump all my waste products in the river. In the magic circle, each child can talk about "Something I can do well" or "A promise that I made and kept." There need not be losers for all to be winners.

In the social interaction topics of the Human Development Program, we help children understand the element of causality in human relationships. "Something that I can do can make you feel good or bad." "Something that you can do can make me feel good or bad." In the magic circle, children explore their effects on others. They can have a harmful effect on people as well as a caring effect on them. They can learn how to be winners with other people by seeing that what works is being nice. "Nice" is a vacuous word to adults, but it means something important to children. When asked what they want to see in a friend, children generally answer, "I want a friend who is nice to me." The circle gives children an opportunity to share their worth and to learn how to become winners with others.

In general, the Human Development Program helps children learn to be better listeners. They become more involved with each other and their teacher. Group cohesiveness is strengthened. Their motivation to learn increases as they experience successes. There is less absenteeism, and there are fewer discipline problems. They learn to verbalize their thoughts and feelings and to understand their behaviors. They learn the dynamics of interpersonal relationships. In the circle, children who have undesirable behaviors or exhibit some abnormality will talk about it. Problems that already exist will come to the surface, thus enabling earlier referrals to be made by the teacher and preventing more severe problems in later years. Teachers also learn to evaluate changes in teaching procedures and classroom techniques.

APPLICATIONS OF THE PROGRAM

The Human Development Program has been adapted to all levels of education. It has also been used by social workers, mental health personnel, governmental agencies, and correctional institutions. There is a set of materials that helps the teacher or other group leader implement the program (Bessell 1970, 1969–72; Bessell & Palomares 1971; Palomares 1971, 1972), but *the most important factor in the success of the program is the process by which the group leader manages the magic circle,* and this is often difficult to learn. It requires training, practice, support, and guidance. Once learned, however, this set of skills, processes, and procedures can provide a new and significant role for school counselors and psychologists.

Although many teachers have been provided with special training in the Human Development Program, we have found that success cannot be completely guaranteed unless supportive and guiding personnel give continuing reassurance and follow-up. The counselor, as an expert in human development, not only can serve as a teacher trainer but also can assure supportive guidance in the use of the program. Even more important, counselors can help teachers get in touch with their own personal dynamics by continually reminding them that they *can* lead circle sessions because they care about their students. Further, by developing inservice programs for teachers in these positive techniques, the counselor can reduce the amount of energy spent in remediation.

To date, most school counselors touch the lives of only a very small percentage of the student body. The counselor's

position is often the first to go when the budget gets tight and monies are cut back, because the counseling program is not operating on a wide scope of influence. Aside from test administration, scheduling, and vocational guidance, counselors concentrate most of their time on remediation. Only those students referred by their teachers as severe problems are being reached. Students avoid seeing counselors because they view counselors as the disciplinarians. Too often when students display disruptive behavior in the classroom, they are sent to the counselor.

Counselors can widen their scope of influence and take on a more dynamic role if they begin to shift their emphasis to preventive guidance, teaching social-emotional curriculums to students in groups and acting as consultants to teachers in developmental programs such as the Human Development Program. They can increase communication between students and teachers by supplying new communication skills that can be used daily within the classroom. The counselor's role, then, takes on a new significance: that of the liaison person serving at the heart of the communication system in affective education. ■

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FREEDOM

LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO
LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO

Freedom   i hear you
in the wild call of geese returning again and again and again
in the haunting song of the loon from my long ago Minnesota waters
in the ache of wanting to hear you   to know you
in my sound   in my sound   in my song
        i hear you Freedom

LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO
LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO

Freedom   i see you
in the eyes of Derek racing his big wheeler
in the eyes of Mary when she lets her dance go free
in the eyes of Norman when i see me there
in love made visible, our children—children everywhere
        i see you Freedom

LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO
LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO

Freedom   i smell you
in the lentils bringing good friends home
in the musky spring air just coming back, new life
in the pines, in the close mysterious woods
in the ocean, that salty extension, giving me space
        i smell you Freedom

LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO
LOOKING	FINDING	LETTING GO

Freedom   i feel you
when i accept myself
      this is my body where i live
      this is me—see
when i accept friends and loves where they are
when someone's pain is my pain
when someone's hunger is my hunger
when i tell the truth to myself and others
when i seize your moment, reach beyond my fear, and risk the changes
when home is me, and there i am; no matter where, or the changes
        i feel you Freedom

LOOKING   FINDING   LETTING GO
LOOKING   FINDING   LETTING GO

Freedom   i know you
letting go of a child birthing to himself and the world
letting go of love when it needs space and discovery
          (and being there when love comes home)
letting go of tears when tears cry for release
letting go of grief when held too long
letting go of self in making someone happy, something beautiful
          i know you Freedom

LOOKING   FINDING   LETTING GO
LOOKING   FINDING   LETTING GO

Freedom   i am you
when i disappear   and am whole   yet part of the whole
universe in the universe   connection and connector
the rhythm of seasons repeated in me
the motion of waters in my blood
the touch of the wind in my hands
the wisdom of geese in my flight
the insanity of the loon in my voice
the energy of the sun in my eyes
the song of the stars shining through my sound
I AM YOU FREEDOM

i

a m

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Moral conflict and change in correctional settings

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Working in a male reformatory and in an adult women's prison in Connecticut, we have attempted to design a therapeutic program for inmates that attempts to stimulate moral reasoning. Based on Kohlberg's (1967) theory of moral development, the program relies heavily on group meetings designed to focus on and resolve a variety of moral issues raised by the participants. Through "guided moral discussions," participants tend to develop more mature moral reasoning.

Working over a period of 18 years, Kohlberg and his associates empirically observed a progression of moral thinking that appears to have both cross-national and cross-cultural validity. Individuals have been found to progress through each of six hierarchically ordered stages of moral maturity. Each stage is characterized by increasing logic, differentiation, and moral adequacy. Each stage, in effect, encompasses a more mature philosophy of society. Individuals are conceived of as actively restructuring their moral position in an attempt to work through a more mature, more integrated moral ideology.

Prior to our intervention in the reformatory and the prison, these principles had been used in moral education in the public schools. Through exposure to moral discussions, junior high and high school students have shown changes in their moral maturity (Blatt and Kohlberg 1969). The educational project focused on the presentation of moral dilemmas or conflict situations that were aimed at a particular moral stage and issue. In this work, as in the subsequent prison projects, discussion leaders attempted to "listen" for the moral structure of a student's moral reasoning and pose conflicts at the stage immediately above the student's own (see Figure 1). Changes result from exposure to higher stage arguments, through conflict in dialogue with other ideas, through role-taking, and through considering alternative perspectives.

MORAL DEVELOPMENT IN A REFORMATORY

Working initially in the Cheshire Reformatory, Hickey (1971) demonstrated that an experienced group leader could, through engaging in moral discussions

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FIGURE 1

Classification of Moral Judgment into Levels and Stages of Development

Moral Levels	Basis of Moral Judgments	Stages of Development	Typical Responses
I	Moral value resides in external, quasi-physical happening, in bad acts, or in quasi-physical needs rather than in persons and standards.	Stage 1: Obedience and punishment orientation. Egocentric deference to superior power or prestige or to a trouble-avoiding set. Objective responsibility.	"I'll do it 'cause I don't want to do more time." "I do it 'cause I want to keep out of trouble."
		Stage 2: Naively egoistic orientation. Right action is that which instrumentally satisfies the self's needs and occasionally others' needs. Awareness of relativism of value to each actor's needs and perspectives. Naive egalitarianism and orientation to exchange and reciprocity.	"I'm number one. I look after me. If you help me out, maybe I'll help you sometime."
II	Moral value resides in performing good or right roles, in maintaining the conventional order and the expectancies of others.	Stage 3: "Good-boy" orientation to approval and to pleasing and helping others. Conformity to stereotypical images of majority or natural role behavior, and judgment by intentions.	"Sure I'd help another guy out. I'd be thinking about how he'd be feeling. Any decent person would help him."
		Stage 4: Authority and social-order maintenance orientation. Orientation to "doing duty" and to showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake. Regard for earned expectations of others.	"Look, you're supposed to help others. It's like a rule. Without people doing their jobs, society couldn't function."
III	Moral value resides in conformity by the self to shared or shareable standards, rights, or duties.	Stage 5: Contractual, legalistic orientation. Recognition of an arbitrary element or starting point in rules or expectations for the sake of agreement. Duty defined in terms of contract, general avoidance of violation of the will or rights of others, and majority will and welfare.	"It's a law that the people consented to. We all have an obligation to work through the agreed structure to get laws which appear wrong changed. When an injustice is committed, it is best to work through the system to end it."
		Stage 6: Conscience or principle orientation. Orientation not only to actually ordained social rules but to principles of choice involving appeal to logical universality and consistency. Orientation to conscience as a directing agent and to mutual respect and trust.	"The law should be subordinate to higher principles of justice. One should act in accordance with these superordinate principles rather than maintain simple conformity to the law."

with inmates, induce small but statistically significant change among delinquent participants. In the study, roughly one-third of the participants moved ahead a full stage of moral maturity. This work demonstrated that delinquents were not fixated in their moral ideologies and that their thinking could be stimulated through participation in moral discussion groups.

In working with these delinquents, it was possible to demonstrate clinically the validity of some core axioms of developmental change. Through presentation of "one-up" arguments, inmates came to see the greater reasonableness of the more mature moral positions. This method was found to be most effective in peer-to-peer dialogue. Inmates at Stage 2, for example, would be engaged in dialogue with Stage 3 inmates, Stage 3 inmates with Stage 4 inmates, etc., gradually moving toward the reasoning of the higher adjacent stage.

In addition, through inmate interaction in the groups, inmates' positions and structures undergo challenge and disequilibrium. A Stage 2 inmate, for example, arguing that he "should do [his] own time and look after number one," is challenged by Stage 3 arguments that inmates should regard other inmates' feelings, desires, and expectations.

Inmates in group discussions also role-take other peer positions, perspectives, and orientations. Role-taking opportunities are related to moral change in the individual. The leaders of the moral discussions at Cheshire would ask what the other inmates were thinking in reaction to particular situations and then encourage role-taking. Further, they would ask inmates what they would do, given a particular dilemma, if they were the governor, warden, or officer. In this way inmates are introduced to many differing perspectives of society.

Overall, our initial findings indicated that, while delinquents consistently exhibited lower moral maturity than non-

delinquents, they were not necessarily fixated and could be stimulated in moral development through guided moral discussions. The data further suggested that cognitive maturity as defined by Piaget and Inhelder (1958) is an excellent predictor of moral development among delinquents. Finally, it appeared that real-life, task oriented moral discussions were more effective in terms of inducing change than formal, leader-chosen, "made up" dilemmas.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND MORAL CHANGE

Building on these findings, we undertook a more ambitious project at the Niantic State Farm for Women in Niantic, Connecticut. We believed that inmates, through participating in the self-governance of a small cottage community, might be stimulated to greater changes in moral maturity than was true in the male reformatory, where the intervention was limited to small group discussions.

Briefly, the interveners established a social compact with line staff (correctional officers), inmates, and administrators in which each of the parties agreed to a community governing process in which the inmates would be given a large degree of control over living conditions and discipline within the cottage. Inmates and staff agreed to meet regularly in "community meetings" in order to deal with matters of concern to inmates and the prison community as a whole. For example, if a woman had a carton of cigarettes "ripped off," or if there was a conflict between a woman and a staff member, the woman and correctional officers would meet in a common community meeting to decide what should be done. Decisions were made by majority vote, and the discipline given inmates generally reflected a degree of accommodation by both inmates and staff.

The groups appear to have a major effect in terms of stimulating moral ma-

turity in inmates. Among the first group of inmate participants we found a modal change rate of approximately one-third of a stage. While the data is still being analyzed, this appears to be greater change than was reported using moral discussions alone. The community process appears to facilitate social role-taking by inmates. Often for the first time in their lives, inmates are forced to become concerned with the creation of rules and maintenance of order within a social community.

Although the main therapeutic instrument of the unit is the community process, individual counseling is also encouraged. Again, the Kohlberg construct is used as a counseling guide. The client is encouraged to consider stage adjacent alternatives to the issues presently being examined. Typically, the dialogue sounds much like traditional counseling. The uniqueness, however, lies in the strategy behind the counselors' responses. Thus, if the client is using a Stage 2 (self-centered) argument to support a position, the counselor attempts to create cognitive conflict by posing Stage 3 alternatives. Disruptive behavior is thus dealt with as a justice issue for the total group rather than as an individual personality problem.

The moral development correctional project appears to be at least a tentative success. Inmates seem to have moved toward greater moral maturity through their experience in the program. Follow-up studies of "graduates" of the program are encouraging. After an average of eight months "on the streets," only 3 of 20 women have returned to the institution. All 3 have been parole violators rather than people convicted of new crimes. Informal interviews with graduates of the program indicate that many feel the program aided them in living more meaningful lives on the streets.

Kohlberg's theory, then, provides a basis for addressing the social reform of prisons as well as the rehabilitation of the offender. It provides a means to order rights and roles in the prison so that the dignity and claims of the inmate are respected, consistent with the maintenance of the rights of individual citizens, staff, and society. The theory holds promise for the rehabilitation of the inmate as well. Change in moral maturity seems to have some effect on the inmates' actions in conflict situations in the larger society. The rehabilitation centers on the inmate's inability to understand or act in accordance with the justice principles of society or other people; this approach provides an alternative to the mental health orientation to crime, which assumes that the inmate is "sick" in some psychological sense. Our theory, in contrast to the mental health approach, assumes that the roots of crime should be understood in terms of both the inmate's and society's inability to act according to a mature sense of justice.

We see the moral development approach to corrections as being in an embryonic stage. We hope eventually to move from the institutional setting to the community. We hope that, through a combination of after-care guided group counseling, residential homes, and inmate-run economic ventures, we will be able to provide an even greater contribution to the lives of the former inmates of the program. ■
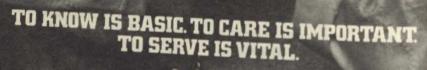
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TO KNOW IS BASIC. TO CARE IS IMPORTANT. TO SERVE IS VITAL.

Over the years,
you've come to know about our
expertise in the area of evaluation and
guidance. We're pleased that
you regard us as professionals
who care about education.

We try to serve by
producing a wide range of products to help
you guide the young, growing minds of America.
Because, in the final evaluation,
it's how they come out
that is really important.

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Social Applications

It is criminally negligent for psychological education to ignore major societal issues, as counseling and therapy have to date. The conceptual models, techniques, and programs of psychological education can focus on alleviating symptoms of social pathology such as racism, sexism, and drug abuse. Psychological education provides the counselor with some specific tools to do something about these problems.

Anderson and Love present detailed suggestions for developing workshops to increase consciousness for combating personal and institutional racism. Beginning sexism consciousness raising exercises are provided by Delworth to help both men and women understand how cultural attitudes toward the sexes are embedded in our individual psychological makeup.

Gluckstern's article provides an important summation, as it clearly explains how a wide variety of psychological education techniques can be applied in a systematic program to train parents to help other parents whose families may have drug-related problems. Considering the massive needs of our society, Gluckstern shows how paraprofessionals can be trained quickly and effectively to solve sociopsychological problems in the community.

The virtue of the programs is their indisputable relevance and the immediate changes they foster in our work with social problems. They provide guidance for the professional counselor who wants to move beyond the counseling office, the classroom, and the school to where the problem really is.

Psychological education for racial awareness

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Counselors must concern themselves with societal problems that frequently subvert the effectiveness of their programs. Significant among these problems is the issue of racism. While counselors have recognized the various ways that racism affects people in the United States today, they have been at a loss in prescribing ways to reorient themselves and their roles within institutions to deal with such social problems as racism.

One of the ways counselors might begin this process is by helping black and other minority children develop a sense of pride and by helping white children develop increased racial understanding. Recent educational research has documented the correlation between level of pride in self and pupil academic performance. The "Black is Beautiful" movement is concerned with helping the black child develop a more positive self-concept. Note, for instance, how Barbara Buckner Wright expresses herself in her poem "Black." [1]

I am a Negro ——
   And I am ashamed
Chemicals in my hair to make it other than what
   it is,
Bleaches on my skin to make it more . . . non-
   black,

Cosmetics on my face to be like the "other"
Why must I try to be other than what I am?
The French say they are French,
   from France,
The Irish say they are Irish,
   from Ireland,
The Italians say they are Italian,
   from Italy.
And I say I am Negro ——
   from where?
Is there a Negro land? The French, Irish, Italians
   all have a culture and heritage.
What is My land? Where are My people? My
   culture? My heritage?
I am Negro ——
   And I am ashamed.
Who GAVE me this name?
"Slaves and dogs are named by their masters . . .
   Free men name themselves"[2]
Must I be other than What I am?

I am Black. This is a source of pride.
My hair is short and finely curled.
My skin is deep-hued, from brown to black.
My eyes are large, open to the world.
My lips are thick, giving resonance to my words.
My nose is broad to breathe freely the air.
My heritage is my experience *in* America . . .
   although not *of* it;
Free from my pretense; open to truth
Seeking freedom that all life may be free

I am Black. America has cause to be proud.

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[1] The poem "Black" is reprinted with permission from *Let's Work Together,* by Nathan Wright, Hawthorn Books, 1968.

[2] Ron Karenga, *The Quotable Karenga.*

Until recently, school systems have failed all minority students by not portraying minority role models in positions of authority and by not integrating minority history and culture into the curriculums of the schools. An additional failure has been demonstrated by teachers, counselors, and administrators who are not prepared to deal with a minority constituency. Needless to say, these same errors are compounded and continued in offices, agencies, and other work and living settings. Knowing about the history and culture of minority groups and being sensitive to how racism functions in all institutions of society is important for all counselors, be they in the heart of the inner city or in the outskirts of suburbia. Understanding has not moved much beyond a superficial level, and skill development appears to be nonexistent.

Changing society so that it does accept the responsibility of preparing all to live comfortably and fully in a multicultural society is the responsibility of all those who are a part of the institution. School counselors, however, have a special function to perform, for they have contact with both students and teachers. This means that the role of the counselor should be redefined and expanded and that counselors should assume responsibility for making efforts to increase positive human relations and fostering development of a multicultural view of the world. Of particular importance is the counselor's new role in curriculum development and inservice teacher training.

Counselors are in a unique position to know when there is a need to devote some special attention to dealing with the issues of self-concept and intercultural understanding. The counselor may be the focal point for getting an entire school to begin rethinking its goals, philosophy, and practices. There are some strategies that a counselor can use to get students started in this direction. One such strategy is a student workshop that is scheduled into the school day,

such as the racism workshop described in this article. While designed for a school setting, many of these exercises have equal validity for colleges, employment agencies, and industrial settings. The general objectives of the workshop are (a) to help black and other minority children develop a sense of pride; (b) to help white children develop increased racial understanding; (c) to help all children develop a beginning knowledge of social, anthropological, and biological facts regarding human nature, culture, and race; and (d) to help all children acquire an understanding of the steps that can be taken to overcome racism and be able to relate to them verbally and adapt them into the actions of themselves and others.

ACTIVITIES AND INVESTIGATIONS

Activity 1: Racist Attitudes

Racism is the attitude that one race is innately superior to others; it is the basis of most intergroup friction. Racism is caused by cultural influences and results in varying degrees of negative or undemocratic behavior toward minorities, often with horrible consequences to the total society. The nature, extent, and intensity of racist attitudes among a group needs to be determined in order that steps can be taken to change them.

Pretest the students to determine their attitudes toward minority groups and their understanding of the problems raised by belonging to one or the other of these groups. Direct the group activities in this unit toward meeting the ignorance, misinformation, fears, and suspicions they cite.

Ask open-ended questions. These will stimulate highly thoughtful creative writing and will reveal negative attitudes based on stereotypes. You can use 10 or 15 minutes beforehand as a warm-up period, telling of your own experiences and feelings and asking students to talk

about theirs. Then put the test questions on the board, asking each student to choose one question to write on. Assure the students that only you will read their papers. Examples of open-ended questions or sentences:

1. To my mind, races ought/ought not to be segregated because . . . .

2. I am/am not afraid of people whose skin color is not the same as my own because . . . .

3. I went to a party for blacks and whites, which turned out to be a bad/good experience because . . . .

4. When I think about (blacks, whites, Chinese, Jews) I see . . . .

Keep an anecdotal record of what individuals say and do during the course of the workshop. Study these records for evidence of changes in attitudes and actions.

Activity 2: Sources and Forms of Racism

Racism is learned from observation and emulation of the attitudes of parents, peers, and others children admire as they grow up. Racism results from overgeneralization—forming general attitudes without sufficient evidence, prejudging without the facts or in spite of the facts. Racism stereotypes people, attributing to individuals general characteristics, usually objectionable, of the group to which they seem to belong. Stereotyped thinking is often used to defame a person through rumor and hearsay. The concepts of observation, emulation, overgeneralization, stereotyping, and defamation may be written down on paper and handed out or placed on the blackboard to structure the beginning point for this activity.

Much behavior that reveals racism is in the form of verbal aggression, such as through rumors, jokes, doggerel, accusations, teasing, threats, and name-calling. Have students list and describe, from their own experience or knowledge, these and other ways that racism is learned.

Activity 3: Overcoming Racism

Racism is the result of ignorance concerning the nature of race. The scientific facts concerning the nature of race can frequently help to alleviate attitudes of racism. For example, there is no genetic superiority of any one race over another; all people are of the same species, and their observable differences are determined largely by environment and culture. When communication can be established between the majority and the minority, understanding and appreciation can ensue.

Have group members consider their attitudes toward the concept of race. Open-ended questions can be devised that fit the particular situation and that will not unduly disrupt the class. Special care should be taken if the class is nearly equally divided between black and white students. Discuss some of the reasons for the apparent differences between races. Do people really differ because of race? Why do many people tend to accept stereotypes about other people, never bothering to investigate? Why do so many stereotypes sound reasonable?

Roleplay a situation involving racism. For example, consider two mothers in a supermarket who have their children with them. As they chat, their children play. A little girl of another race steps up to play with them. Let the roleplayers act out alternate endings of this experience. Discuss the experience. How did the mothers feel? What influence did the mothers have on their children? What happened to the little girl of another race who wanted to play?

Have students work in groups, using dictionaries to look up definitions and discussing meanings of words and terms used in studying racism. A popular exercise is to have students brainstorm words and ideas they associate with key words. Have group discussions. Assign each group one human category, such as Frenchmen, Englishmen, Chinese,

Women, Men, Teachers, Parents, Politicians, and so on. Have them discuss the characteristics of their category of people. Show the students that they often think in stereotypical patterns.

CULMINATION AND EVALUATION

Since one of the primary objectives of this unit is to try to effect a positive change in attitudes toward minorities and toward racism in general, it is important to evaluate attitudes at the end of the workshop. Reuse the tests and other devices that were initially used to discover the students' racist attitudes. A comparison of the two results for each student would show what change, if any, took place. Keep a record of the nature of ethnic and racial makeup of conversation circles that form in succeeding group activities. Note whether the subject matter has any effect on the makeup of the groups when they are formed voluntarily.

SUPPLEMENTARY ACTIVITIES

The following suggestions are only a few of the means the counselor can use to evaluate the workshop. Each counselor will have other activities for student development and will want to expand these techniques. The counselor should adapt the evaluation to the particular group being worked with and use the evaluation as a reinforcement device.

• Have students write an essay or short story depicting what they think the ideal society should or would be like in terms of the relationship between racial, ethnic, and other societal groups.

• Ask that poems, essays, stories, and plays written by students be read to the class by the authors.

• Appoint a play committee to present a skit for an assembly, such as an excerpt from Duberman's *In White America* (1964) or an original play that has been developed in class. Students from other schools could be invited to play some of the roles if your school is not integrated.

• Ask students to hand in suggestions as to what the school system should do to help in the development of human rights. Discuss the suggestions.

• Have students check out their own neighborhood and city and write a report on the state of open society in their neighborhood and city.

• Ask the group to develop a series of techniques that could be used by its own members or others to eliminate racism. The group should specify the area they are developing techniques for (schools, industry, housing, etc.)

• Have a bulletin board committee work on different contributions to American culture—examples of paintings, sculptures, inventions, and medicine—made by members of various cultural groups.

• The United States has been described as a "melting pot." Have students prepare a speech to convince an audience that this is or is not the case.

• Ask each student to imagine being a black American arguing before the U.S. Supreme Court for the right to live in any section of the city. Ask students to use the Constitution and write an argument to convince the court.

Resources for use with this workshop may be obtained from a variety of sources. The counselor might make a very profitable excursion to the local library and check for books, films, filmstrips, pamphlets, and photograph and record collections on Negro history and culture, minority affairs, and civil rights. A conversation with the librarian may produce much material for the counselor to use in this workshop and ongoing activities. The librarian may be willing to keep an eye out for new materials coming into the library on the subject, and once the librarian becomes a part of such

a program, new orders for library materials are more likely to include material with that focus. Some useful books include Bontemps (1963), David (1968), Katz (1968), Malcolm X (1964), Plaski and Brown (1967), Schulz (1969), and Wright (1968).

The counselor may also wish to contact national human relations and activist organizations that prepare bibliographies and publish related materials, distributed on request or for a nominal fee. Such organizations include the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, Foundation for Change, the Center for Urban Education, and the Center for Humanistic Education at the School of Education, University of Massachusetts —Amherst.

After completing the workshop, the counselor may decide to organize a series of ongoing groups aimed at achieving racial awareness. The counselor will also find ways of sharing ideas and techniques with teachers in the school. Only when all those who have responsibility for the education of youngsters accept the need for education for racial awareness and become actively involved in that process can we hope for the final elimination of racism in this society. ■

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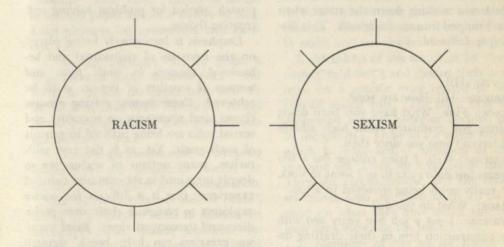
RACISM AND SEXISM EXERCISE

Questions

1. In what ways do you see racism and sexism as similar?
2. To what extent do you see white women and black women joined in sisterhood in your community? If you see that they are not, why do you think black women and white women have not become sisters together?

Instructions

1. To further explore your notions about racism and sexism, try to elaborate on these fuzzy concepts. At the tip of each spoke of the wheel, write a word that the concept evokes in you.

RACISM   SEXISM

2. Having written your first impressions, select a friend and compare your responses.

Implications and Extensions

Out of such exercises, many groups can devise their own exercises for further exploration or use information for project planning. Such exercises are also often good for opening up group or classroom discussion. It would be possible, for example, to put the names of two historical figures in the circles, thus opening up a more personalized approach to history. The possibilities, of course, are infinite.

Raising consciousness about sexism

URSULA DELWORTH

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Jack was walking down the street when he bumped into an old friend. This dialogue followed.

JACK: Hi!

FRIEND: Hi! How are you?

JACK: Fine. What have you been doing since you graduated from high school? I haven't seen you since then.

FRIEND: Well, I tried college for a few years but didn't like it, so I went to work. I really enjoy being involved in a job.

JACK: What do you do?

FRIEND: I got a job five years ago with a construction firm in their drafting department. You remember that was the one thing I really liked in school.

JACK: Yes.

FRIEND: I also got married three years ago, and this is my daughter.

JACK: What's her name?

FRIEND: It's the same as her mother's.

JACK (to daughter): Hi, Sally!

How did Jack know the daughter's name was Sally? Sally, of course, is the friend.

This exercise or a similar one can be used to illustrate how perceptions of appropriate sex roles "lock in" persons and prevent their taking the fresh approach needed for problem solving and creative living.

Emphasis is increasingly being placed on the necessity of attitudinal and behavioral changes in both men and women if equality of person is to be achieved. Consciousness raising groups, classes, and workshops on sexuality and sexual roles are being utilized in pursuit of such goals. Yet, as is the case with racism, many notions of sexism are so deeply ingrained in the common cultural experience that it is difficult for novice explorers to recognize their own prejudices and stereotyped views. Brief warm-up exercises can help break through some of these barriers and lead group members to increased self-exploration and awareness.

The following exercises have proven useful in such contexts. They are suggested for use principally with beginner groups, in which the members have had minimal experience in tuning in to and voicing deeper feelings and personal concerns. They can be used in an academic course as a lead-in to the topic of sexism or in an encounter group setting as a warm-up experience for more extended discussion. Most of the exercises are appropriate for secondary school students as well as adults.

TRY THESE FOR OPENERS

The following warm-ups, as well as the "Jack and Sally" exercise, can be used with either same-sex or mixed-sex groups.

1. Incomplete sentences, in either verbal or written form, can be used. Participants complete such stems as "A man is . . . ." "Being male is . . . ." "I like being a female when . . . ."

2. Word associations are often useful, even in more sophisticated groups. A key word (e.g., *man, woman, mother*) is spoken, and participants have to respond immediately with another word they associate with the one spoken.

3. Participants can be given a few minutes to construct a collage of "woman" and "man." Plenty of scraps of colored paper and/or a variety of magazine pictures are needed for this exercise.

4. Group members can be given a large sheet of paper (at least 11x14) and asked to divide the paper into four or six sections and draw significant scenes in the development of their present sexual identity roles.

5. Simple sex information or attitude inventories are sometimes useful to loosen up a group and initiate discussion.

Each of these exercises should be followed by a "process" time to discuss the stereotypes and specific attitudes revealed through the exercises. Useful areas to cover, whether in question or comment form, are these three: What was gained from the exercise? What feelings were generated by the exercise? What questions or new directions for the group were generated by the exercise?

Processing is initiated by the group leader, who usually starts things off by asking one or more questions dealing with what was learned by group members in the exercise: "What general attitudes toward women came out here?" The leader also tries to open up a discussion of participants' feelings as they participated in the exercises: "How did it feel to talk about men while they were

sitting in the outer circle listening to you?" With such structuring, group members are usually able to share some of their reactions to the exercise and their feelings while participating in it. The leader can direct questions or comments to individual group members after some initial questions and reactions have been dealt with in the entire group: "You really looked eager to get going on that picture."

Mixed-sex groups can often profit from the following exercises, which directly illustrate the stereotypes involved in perceptions of one's own and the opposite sex.

1. Each participant is asked to choose from a list of adjectives three that she or he would *like* to have describe herself or himself. The types of attributes desired by males and females are then compared.

2. Members of one sex sit in an inner circle ("fishbowl") and discuss their concerns on a specific topic related to the area of sexual role. (The topic may be designated by the leader or decided on by the group.) Those in the outer circle, which is composed of members of the opposite sex, listen for a period of time. Then the circles reverse, and the other sex moves into the inner circle to comment on what they have heard and air their own views on the topic.

3. Members of one sex ask members of the opposite sex questions that concern them about sex roles and attitudes. With students, this seems to work especially well if the set given is that of posing questions to an older, opposite-sex sibling.

Processing, or helping group members discuss the experience, follows guidelines similar to those presented earlier. With mixed-sex groups, it is important to give special emphasis to differences and similarities between the sexes. This often provides a good opportunity to examine classic stereotypes and, for those who have never examined the issue of sexism, to gain new perspectives.

DON'T STOP HERE

While the material presented in this article is designed only as an introduction to raising consciousness about sexism, the exercises described can be used with a wide variety of populations, ranging from high school students through church groups to the entire adult population. Consciousness raising aids such as these can be used in offices, schools, hospitals, and businesses. Once a group gets started, such aids are needed only periodically.

The skills of the leader or consultant as group facilitator become especially important in this area, as the ultimate goal of the effective facilitator is a group capable of continual consciousness raising on its own without a designated leader. ∎

Sad Woman, Little girl
Eyes glistening with tears, lips wrinkled in a smile.
My love, My Woman Child.

Freedom comes hard, except for the sound.
Never to some, never to the Child.
The illusion is real, but reality never an illusion.
Illusions are free, but freedom is not.

Reach out, reach out, but take your own hand.
My Woman Child, my love.

Michael D. Lewis
Governors State University
Park Forest South, Illinois

THANK YOU . . .

For the freedom to be me in the
mire of my self-righteousness,

For the chance to remove the
facade that blinds me to others,

For the care that brings me
to the pinnacle of myself,

For the tears that wash and
cleanse,

For the trust that opens me to
the door of myself,

For the touch that opens life
to its fullest,

For the confrontation that shakes
the foundation of my being,

For the openness that tells
me I am not alone,

For the pain that is gone
before it comes,

For the trust that brings
me in contact with myself,

For daring me to be the
person I can be,

For the love that helps me
transcend myself,

For the tenderness that
gives me strength,

For helping me to reach out—
to myself,

For the joy that comes when
together we catch a glimpse
of what we can be,

For knowing that we really
are our brother's keeper—
if he will let us,

For letting me be more
than me,

For being,
Forever.

John Geisler
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Training parents as drug counselors in the community

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Psychological education is too often thought of as an isolated aspect of a guidance or community counseling program. In truth, its principles, methods, and activities are central to the workings of the effective counselor of the future. During the past year I have been developing a volunteer program for parents as peer counselors. Their task: to help other parents whose children have drug-related problems. My task: to develop a training program that teaches counseling, human relations, and community development skills—and all within 60 hours.

Can it be done? The research literature (Carkhuff 1971; Ivey 1971; Magoon, Golann & Freeman 1969) seems clear on this point. Short training programs now in existence demonstrate that basic helping skills can be transmitted quickly and competently. At a more subjective level, we might consider a new wave of volunteerism in our society represented in what I would call the *community developer*. While many names are given to volunteer helpers (paraprofessionals, indigenous workers, community aides), the term *community developer* implies a fuller sense of personal competence. Community developers are not interested in becoming servants of professionals but are capable of doing a unique job

of service to their community; they are anxious to serve society and help others, and they are seeking viable means by which to do so.

Our crucial role as counselors and counselor educators is to facilitate the interests and capabilities of the community developer through clear and direct teaching of skills and competencies. Through this process we can demystify counseling and human relations by identifying our skills and knowledge and transmitting them more directly to the people.

While this article speaks primarily to training parents as community developers, the workshop design, training activities, and evaluation aspects have implications for the training of other helpers. For example, similar procedures will be equally effective with student-peer counseling programs, community hot line organizations, and a variety of other community development settings.

THE PROGRAM

The goals of this parent community developer program were: (a) to educate parents with regard to drugs, (b) to train them in counseling and human relations skills, and (c) to support them with follow-up services as they entered the community. Too often we find a piecemeal

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effort in community volunteer training. It doesn't do much good to provide education about drugs unless the volunteer has the counseling and communication skills to pass them on. Also, the skills and follow-up of community and organizational development are essential if any program is to get off the ground and become part of the community. Many a good program has died because it was falsely assumed that the community would welcome the program with open arms.

In order to fulfill this commitment, I developed a short but impactful program in team and community development. The 60-hour training program was organized into three phases: (a) structured encounter, with the emphasis on team building; (b) counseling skill development; and (c) community development and change techniques. The encounter experience focused primarily on personal awareness and team building and touched only briefly on drugs, counseling, and community development (Schein & Bennis 1967). The skill phase defined more systematically for the trainees what they had experienced in the encounter. The first two phases created a group cohesiveness that was later to sustain the group in the early and frustrating period of their struggle for survival in a sometimes hostile, but mainly indifferent, community.

The Structured Encounter

The first experience of the parent trainees was a structured weekend encounter session lasting approximately 20 hours. One of the many experiential exercises used during this time was the "fishbowl" microlab, based on the Gibb and Gibb (1969) model. The participants were divided into two subgroups, each subgroup having an opportunity to be both observers and participants. Group 1 responded to the phrase "When I first meet someone I . . . ." for 15 minutes,

while the remainder of the participants observed their interaction. The two groups then changed places. Group 2 responded to the phrase "I get most uptight when . . . ." while the first group observed them. Subsequently Group 1 responded to "Right now I'm feeling . . . ." and Group 2 to "I feel so helpless when . . . ." Then the group members processed what each had experienced, felt, and observed during the exercise.

This sample exercise had a number of objectives: to get people to know one another, to promote individual openness and sharing, to identify problem areas often encountered in counseling, and to develop observational techniques that parents would need in their dual roles as counselors (with clients) and supervisors (with peers) (Carkhuff 1971).

Out of the encounter weekend came several important developments. There emerged two primary motivational factors for the trainees' being in the program; one was the desire for personal growth experiences, the other the desire for an opportunity to give service to the community. Once these two themes were identified as being of most significance to the trainees, the remainder of the training program was designed to help them achieve these goals.

Counseling Skill Development

The skill development phase of the program focused on providing drug information and teaching counseling skills. Drug information was provided in lecture discussions by a university-associated drug program and structured experiential exercises similar to those in the encounter phase. Counseling skill development was organized through the microcounseling format. Microcounseling (Ivey 1971) is a systematic technique of counseling instruction that has proven useful in many types of professional and paraprofessional settings. Microcounseling emphasizes single skills of interview-

ing rather than attempting to teach the entire counseling process at once. The community developer trainees responded rapidly to this framework and showed important and lasting improvement in their counseling abilities.

The specific counseling skills taught through microcounseling were: attending behavior, reading of nonverbal cues, reflection of feelings, paraphrasing, and summarization. Each skill was practiced individually as well as in small groups, and each trainee had the experience of being both a counselor and a client. A combination of video and audio equipment supported the skill training process. The openness provided by the earlier structured encounter phase of the training made the practice interviews focus on real topics of concern to the individuals.

By the end of the training program, the community developer trainees were able to supervise one another's counseling sessions. For example, when they sensed that an interview was going poorly, they could replay the tape and point out specific skills that the counselor could use to improve the flow of the interview. This seems to be an important side benefit of the microcounseling process. Follow-up seven months after training revealed that the trainees had maintained their skill levels in interviewing and were having significant impact on their clients, as measured by independent raters of client and counselor behavior.

Community Development and Change Techniques

The final phase of the program was working with the community volunteers as they began to function in the community. This was the most difficult and crucial period of the entire program (Magoon, Golann & Freeman 1969). The volunteers completed the program with plenty of togetherness, enthusiasm, and confidence in their own skills. They expected to be called on immediately by the community without any further work on their part. Meeting with them one month after the completion of the training program, I discovered that they had yet to receive a request for help. In truth, this is characteristic of many lay helping programs, and this period is indeed a pivotal one for both the program and the trainer. Too many training programs stop at this point, forgetting that community and organizational development procedures are essential to keep a project relevant and moving forward.

It is essential at this crucial juncture not to develop or foster a dependency relationship with the trainees but instead provide a supportive or consulting role. While the consultant role required me to function similarly to the manner in which I functioned as the leader while in training, it was necessary to make clear to the group that the difference in my acting as a consultant was that now (a) I would not be directly responsible for the work or the outcomes of the consultation, (b) I would focus on plans or problems related to the responsibilities of the group, and (c) I would function in the context of what actually was taking place in the field.

Together we began the process of problem solving, a five-step process that consisted of (a) defining the community problem; (b) working on the problem, i.e., making plans for action and collecting further information if necessary; (c) training and reorienting if necessary, considering such things as family interventions, public speaking, and renaming the program; (d) acting on the problem, with responsibility primarily on the volunteers to contact funding agencies, selectmen, police, etc.; and (e) assessing and replanning if necessary. Consultation sessions ranged from training in public speaking and group confrontation skills (some trainees had experienced

antagonism from the community when they had discussed their program in open forums) to analysis of community power structures, and the sessions dealt with how parents might join forces with the more rejecting professional helping groups, such as the school counselors, local social workers, and physicians.

Community development is an indigenous process. It is a progression of events planned by the community developers to serve goals they choose through a growing sense of competence and social sensitivity (Biddle & Biddle 1965). As the participants in the program became more successful in their community organizational activities, they increasingly took over responsibility for determining their own needs and the needs of the community.

In the process of coming in contact with some 100 clients, the community developers trained in this program have broadened their services to include marital concerns, parent-child conflict resolution, and the establishing of a "Parent-to-Parent Call Line." In order to help them become more effective in the newly defined areas of concern, additional skill development and factual materials have been incorporated as ongoing inservice training components.

Because traditional drug education lectures and panel discussions by doctors, lawyers, and former junkies had not succeeded in meeting the personal dilemmas faced by parents, the local citizens sought out their own solution for affecting, controlling, and humanizing their lives. The volunteers took part in the process, which was initiated from the community and employed community resources. The result is that parents are able to provide a service to help the family unit in clarifying and seeking new alternatives for gaining control over certain aspects of their lives in a changing and frustrating world. In this process the volunteers have become community developers in action.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION PRODUCES CHANGE

One of the community participants, who was a professional educator, came into the training program not only because, as the parent of three teenage children, she wanted to be of help to other parents of troubled adolescents, but also because she was experiencing some anxiety in her own role as a parent. "I think many parents today are confused, defensive, dogmatic, or frightened—but are truly anxious to find the answers and wish to develop good relationships with their children."

On completion of the training, she continued to be an effective community developer. However, something else of even greater importance happened: She became a more effective teacher. She began to use in the classroom the techniques she learned in the program, such as group exercises in attending behavior and value clarification. She conducted several workshops on drug abuse for students in her school and worked effectively with "attitudinal change teams" at the school. She plans to take a sabbatical next year to acquire additional training in psychological education in order to further her effectiveness in the classroom. She has said that as a result of the program she has grown both professionally and personally.

It is not only in the individual that change takes place; inevitably, as a result of this kind of program, the theory of counselor and paraprofessional training is affected. The first evidence of such change probably occurs in the definition of counselor role. Effective counselors today must cross over old boundary lines and challenge old methods. They must become more than just conveyors of information or collectors of data; they must be people who help mold and meld and make things happen. The traditional counselor role must give way to

training helpers, consulting with teachers, and humanizing the schools.

Psychological education efforts will only be effective when integrated fully into the community or organization. Efforts to produce individual change are often stymied by family resistance to the change. Changes in families or individuals may be made difficult by the nature of the institutions in which they work and the communities in which they live. Not only must psychological education efforts of the counselor be directed toward sharing skills of counseling and interpersonal interaction, but these efforts must also focus on new concepts of organizational development and change. ■

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Getting into Psychological Education

ALFRED S. ALSCHULER

ALLEN E. IVEY

Where can you go from here? The articles in this issue contain numerous practical ideas for you to try out, but solid competence and sustained programs require more preparation. The books we suggest in each of the following areas are suitable for individuals just getting into the field of psychological education. It is not necessary for you to master all the books in order to be sufficiently prepared; a good approach would be to sample books from each area according to your existing strengths and the strengths you wish to develop.
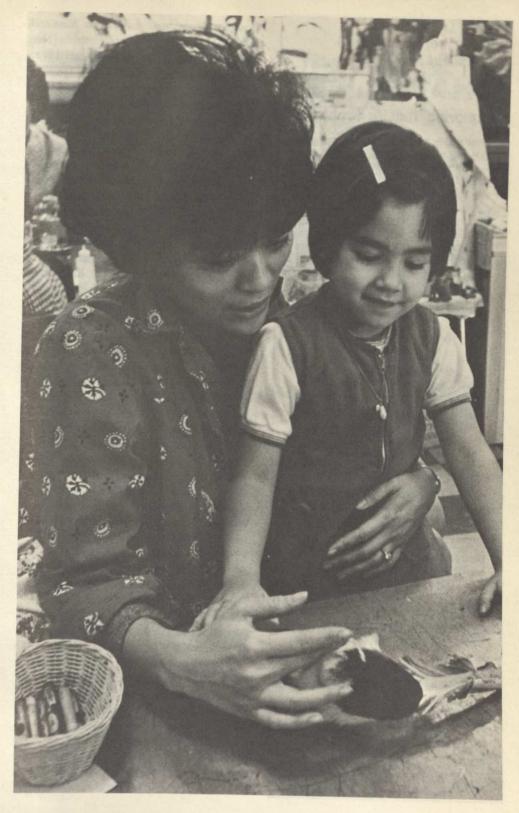
ACTIVITIES AND EXERCISES

Almost all psychological educators first need to develop a repertoire of games, exercises, roleplays, and structured activities that can provide an experience base on which to teach the psychological lesson. The following books contain many exercises. After mastering two or three, skimming the others will quickly reveal the large overlap of activities and the many variations possible on each of the basic exercises.

First, we suggest Pfeiffer and Jones' series of three paperbacks, *Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training* (University Associates Press, Box 615, Iowa City, Iowa 52240). These three manuals contain a wealth of exercises and ideas for the development of workshops as well as containing psychologically oriented courses for a wide variety of age groups. In a similar vein, you will find Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum's *Values Clarification* (New York: Hart 1972) another very useful paperback. Its 379 pages contain 79 specific techniques for extending values clarification as Simon has presented it in this issue of the JOURNAL. Spolin's *Improvisation for the Theater* (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press 1963) is another treasure trove of well-designed and carefully sequenced exercises. Although designed for use in theater training, these exercises have important implications for the psychological education movement as well.

Other valuable sources for exercises in psychological education include Brown's *Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education* (New York: Viking Press 1971), Otto's *A Guide to Developing Your Potential* (New York: Charles Scribner's 1967), and Lewis and Streetfield's *Growth*

Games: How to Tune In to Yourself,
Your Family, and Your Friends (New
York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich 1971).
Some equally good sources for psycho-
logically oriented exercises may be
found in Malamud and Machover's
*Toward Self-Understanding: Group
Techniques in Self-Confrontation*
(Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas
1965), Nylen, Mitchell, and Stout's
*Handbook of Staff Development and
Human Relations Training* (Washing-
ton, D.C.: NTL Institute of Applied
Behavioral Science 1967), and Schutz's
Joy (New York: Grove Press 1967).

An old book, but still in print at $25,
is Jacobson's *Progressive Relaxation*
(Chicago: University of Chicago Press
1938). This classic work provides impor-
tant underpinnings for much of today's
work using relaxation training. A much
less expensive introduction to Jacobson's
work is his paperback *You Must Relax*
(New York: McGraw-Hill 1962). Those
oriented toward body awareness owe
Jacobson a great debt whether their ori-
entation is analytic (e.g., Lowen's *Physi-
cal Dynamics of Character Structure,*
New York: Grune & Stratton 1958), hu-
manistic (e.g., Gunther's *Sense Relaxa-
tion: Below Your Mind,* New York:
Macmillan 1968), or behavioral (e.g.,
Wolpe and Lazarus' *Behavior Therapy
Techniques,* New York: Pergamon Press
1968). Those interested in body work as
an important part of psychological edu-
cation will want to return to a detailed
examination of Jacobson's studies.

The literature on altered states of con-
sciousness and biofeedback is expanding
geometrically, but most of the material
available at present is highly technical.
Perhaps the best source at this time is
Tart's fascinating book of readings,
Altered States of Consciousness (New
York: Wiley 1969).

For a more extensive listing of exer-
cises, games, simulations, films, and
growth centers where experiences such as
these are offered, Canfield and Phillips'

PROGRAMS IN PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

A number of programs provide more systematic direction for organizing exercises toward specific goals. Being competent in one or more of these programs will provide models later when you attempt to combine exercises into unique programs designed to solve specific psychological problems or to develop systematic preventive-developmental programs. The importance of systematic approaches to psychological education cannot be stressed too strongly, for it is the random selection of exercises without specific aims that most often results in ineffective or comical consequences. Psychological educators should have meaningful, readily transmittable rationales behind all their work.

Two systematic programs in creativity stand out: Parne's *Creative Behavior Handbook* (New York: Charles Scribner's 1967) and Gordon's *Synetics* (New York: Harper & Row 1961). Additional information on synetics curriculum materials is available from Synetics Educational Systems, 121 Brattle Street, Cambridge, Mass. 02138. Further information on creativity courses and methods may be obtained from the Creative Education Foundation, State University College, 1300 Elmwood Ave., Buffalo, N.Y. 14222.

The concepts inherent in achievement motivation provide a popular and well-researched approach to psychological education. Alschuler, Tabor, and McIntyre's *Teaching Achievement Motivation* (Middletown, Conn.: Education Ventures, Inc. 1970) provides an overview of this program. Specific games to teach achievement motivation are available from this publisher and include such titles as "The Origami Game," "Ring Toss Game," "Who am I?" "Aiming," and "Ten-Thoughts."

For work with elementary children, the magic circle concept is particularly effective and in a readily usable format. A curriculum for kindergarten through late elementary school is now available in Bessell's *Methods in Human Development* (El Cajon, Calif.: Human Development Institute 1970).

A special issue of *The Counseling Psychologist* (1971, Vol. 1, No. 4), with a major contribution by Mosher and Sprinthall, is devoted to psychological education. In this issue the authors outline their curricular approach to psychological education in the schools.

Other organized programs are available. Excellent programs and exercises may be found in Wells and Canfield's *About Me: A Curriculum for Developing Self-Motivation* and in Peterson's *Motivation Advance Program*. (Both of these are available from Combined Motivation Education Systems, 6300 River Road, Rosemont, Ill. 60018.) Arlin's *Choose Life: Value Education for the*

Young Adult (Argus Communications, 3505 N. Ashland Ave., Chicago, Ill.) and Gibson's *The Intergroup Relations Curriculum: A Program for Elementary School Education* (Medford, Mass.: Tufts University Press) are two additional good sources.

Dinkmeyer's *Developing Understanding of Self and Others* (American Guidance Service, Publishers' Building, Circle Pines, Minn. 55014) is a well-developed elementary school multimedia program that includes puppets, records or cassettes, discussion cards, and storybooks.

Gestalt concepts are increasingly important in psychological education. Brown's work in confluent education, cited earlier under "Activities and Exercises," is important in this area as well, as it represents a systematic effort to orient Gestalt techniques to the classroom. Lederman's *Anger and the Rocking Chair: Gestalt Awareness with Children* (New York: McGraw-Hill 1969) and Perls, Hefferline, and Goodman's classic *Gestalt Therapy* (New York: Dell 1951) offer exercises and concepts showing that Gestalt may be even more important as a teaching tool than as a therapeutic alternative.

Much like Gestalt, transactional analysis is becoming recognized as an important teaching tool for psychological awareness. Books such as Berne's *Games People Play* (New York: Grove Press 1964) and Harris' *I'm OK, You're OK* (New York: Harper & Row 1967) received mixed reviews from the profession but still represent important alternative psychological education programs, since they help demystify the psychodynamic experience for the lay person.

Behavioral approaches are not usually associated with psychological education, but the recent effort of the behavior modifiers to make their concepts clear and discernible to the lay person is in the best tradition of the psychological education movement. We believe, however, that the modification of behavior,

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in order to qualify as true psychological education, must be a shared rather than a manipulative process. Important among the many good books in this area is Krumboltz and Krumboltz's *Changing Children's Behavior* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall 1972). Two other helpful works for developing systematic training programs in behavioral approaches are Diebert and Harmon's *New Tools for Changing Behavior* (1970) and Carter's *Help! These Kids Are Driving Me Crazy!* (1972). (Both are available from Champaign, Ill.: Research Press.) Finally, many people have found Sulzer's *Behavior Modification Procedures for School Personnel* (Honesdale, Ill.: Dryden Press 1972) especially helpful in the school situation.

Weinstein and Fantini's *Toward Humanistic Education* (New York: Praeger 1970) presents a conceptual model that can be used by practitioners to guide them in constructing a psychological education course. Many good exercises for a variety of audiences are provided in this work.

TRANSMITTING COUNSELING SKILLS TO PEOPLE

While based in counseling psychology and in the desire to produce better counselors, three methods of counselor training are increasingly showing themselves to be viable means of psychological education. If counseling skills are relatively easily defined, it is a short and logical extension to argue that they should be made available to the general public.

The most comprehensive statement of this position is made by Carkhuff. His clear definition of helping skills should be a basic part of all psychological educators' repertoires as well as their libraries. Important foundations of Carkhuff's methods and concepts can be found in his two-volume series *Helping and Human Relations* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston 1969). Included in these volumes are clear definitions of his con-

ceptual framework for facilitative human relationships. Vital extensions of these basic concepts to community and societal issues, particularly those of racial relations, may be found in *The Development of Human Resources* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston 1971). A recent paperback, *The Art of Helping* (Human Resource Development Press, Box 222, Amherst, Mass. 01002), provides a useful introduction to his concepts for the lay person. And Carkhuff plans further extensions describing his work.

Kagan's *Influencing Human Interaction* (East Lansing, Mich.: Instructional Media Center, Michigan State University), a dynamic and exciting method of counselor training using television feedback training, has demonstrated itself as a most successful method of imparting basic counseling constructs not only to counselors and therapists but also to teachers and other groups. Kagan has produced a valuable and well-researched set of videotapes and materials that make his methods clear and learnable. Although designed originally for professional helpers, Kagan's materials have important implications for the psychological education movement.

A third method of imparting counseling skills to the public is represented by Ivey's *Microcounseling* (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas 1971). The methods of microcounseling have been used to teach basic counseling and communication skills to populations as varying as medical students and psychiatric patients, parents and children, school counselors and peer counselor groups, clinical psychologists and camp counselors. Once individuals learn basic skills, they seem able to move forward and apply these skills in a wide variety of situations. Microcounseling from its origin has been oriented to the counselor's role as a teacher of counseling and communication skills.

Work by Carkhuff, Kagan, and Ivey suggests that we need no longer consider

counseling a set of mysterious skills to keep hidden from the public. It now seems rather that psychological education can include the direct teaching of counseling and communication skills as one aspect of the total program. No direct comparisons of the three methods of training mentioned above have yet been made, but clinical observation suggests that using aspects of each system may be most effective in the long run.

COMMUNITY AND SOCIETAL PERSPECTIVES

Psychological education is not only concerned with individual change and growth; it is also concerned with humanizing and developing more effective groups and institutions.

What is the counselor's responsibility to the society? Excellent responses to this question are found in previous Special Issues of the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL. The May 1971 issue on "Counseling and the Social Revolution," edited by Lewis, Lewis, and Dworkin, provides a basic introduction. The October 1972 issue on "Women and Counselors," edited by Judith A. Lewis, the October 1971 issue on "Culture as a Reason for Being," edited by Palomares, and the May 1970 issue on "What Guidance for Blacks?" edited by Smith, provide clear statements of basic issues facing the counseling profession.

After your consciousness has been raised, you may want to look for guidance in how to produce change in organizations and communities. The rhetoric outlining the problems of society is sadly ahead of the materials suggesting systematic and workable remedies. One of the best general books available on systematic change is *Organizational Development in Schools* by Schmuck and Miles (Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press 1971). This book summarizes material from a variety of perspectives on how change can be organized and oriented in the schools. Carkhuff's *The Development of*

Human Resources (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston 1971) provides excellent case material and examples of planned community change.

From another perspective, Hersey and Blanchard's *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall 1969) offers valuable concepts. This book focuses on management styles and is oriented toward more humane approaches in business while still maintaining a task emphasis. It seems appropriate that counseling and psychological education break out of traditional boundaries and examine what other fields have to say about organizational and societal change.

GENERAL BACKGROUND

While there is as yet no definitive theoretical statement providing underpinnings for psychological education, the following books are cited most often as influential: Bugental's *Challenges of Humanistic Psychology* (New York: McGraw-Hill 1967), Jourard's *The Transparent Self* (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand 1962), and Roger's *Freedom to Learn* (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill 1970).

Clearly, the psychological education movement at this moment appears to be coming primarily from "third force" humanistic psychology, as exemplified in the above books. However, dynamically oriented psychologists and counselors can take heart from Jones' excellent, but difficult, *Fantasy and Feeling in Education* (New York: New York University Press 1968), which does a nice job of showing the relevance of psychoanalytic thought to the psychological education movement.

DON'T BE OVERWHELMED: DO SOMETHING!

This list of sources, while only a beginning, reveals that a significant body of

literature comprised of contributions once thought distinct and unrelated is coming together under a broader definition of counseling, guidance, and helping. Psychological education is an inclusive construct that calls for new competencies from the profession to supplement existing expertise. Few of us have the total repertoire of skills that this summary of recommended literature suggests.

However, one should keep the primary aims of psychological education in mind. There are many routes toward the development of intentionality and growth in individuals. These routes can vary in range from humanistically oriented behavior modification programs and encounter groups to large system change efforts. All of us have our own special-ties, significant experiences, and knowledge. Instead of arguing which method is "best" or "right," perhaps we could join together as colleagues and recognize that our differences in methods and concepts can actually be used to further larger mutual goals. Can't we cherish and use our differences in attitudes, opinions, and skills?

The time has come for guidance workers, psychologists, and helpers to realize that no one person or theoretical system has *the* answer. If we all spend time developing our own unique expertise, recognizing that everyone has something to contribute to the action, the traditional status hierarchies may disappear, as counselors move toward mutuality not only with the public but also within the helping profession. ■

Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything*, including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.

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ARTICLES

IN THE FIELD

SPECIAL REPORTS

POEMS

Feedback

The New Balance

I want to commend you on the new format of
the P&G JOURNAL and the way in which you
are handling the Special Features. I too have
felt that the Special Issues interrupted the
continuity of the regular departments and at
times did not reach a major percentage of
the membership. The Special Issues certainly
make a major contribution, but many readers
are not working in areas where they can use
that material as much as some of the other
kinds of features that are in the JOURNAL.
You have reached an excellent compromise
by continuing to provide regular articles and
the monthly departments.

I know that keeping the JOURNAL relevant
and meaningful is certainly a major chal-
lenge, and you are to be commended for
keeping in touch with the profession while
at the same time providing leadership. That
type of balance is difficult to attain.

DON DINKMEYER
DePaul University
Chicago, Illinois

The Asian-American Feature

Just want to make some very positive com-
ments concerning the Special Feature "Asian-
Americans: The Neglected Minority," edited
by Derald Wing Sue (February 1973).

First of all, there is the sensitivity shown
by you and the Editorial Board of the
JOURNAL to Derald Sue for his proposal and
eventual outline of the project on Asian-
Americans.

Second, the contents of the articles focus on
critical issues that are important to the Asian-
American communities as well as to students
from those communities. This Special Feature
will speak not only to Asian-American edu-
cators but to everyone in the professions of
education who encounters Asian-American
students and their particular needs. Decisions
based on the awareness of Asian-American
needs can enhance the guidance and counsel-
ing professions to a great extent to the
minority community. A very healthy image in
understanding the Asian-American student's
position can be achieved through reading and
gaining a conscious awareness of each article
in the Special Feature.

And third, a fine printing decision was
made to feature Asian-Americans on yellow
paper, as a significant distinction from the
traditional white paper used in professional
journals. This should become a pattern to
follow.

One caution: I trust that others in editorial
positions will view Asian-Americans as a dis-
tinct minority and as persons and will accept
them as such without their having to prove
themselves as "one of the best we have ever
seen." It seems that minorities have to prove
themselves to whites to be considered as equal
persons; in the above case, they have to be
better than whites for acceptance.

Thank you for listening to us.

MASAYUKI SATO, graduate student
California State University
San Jose, California

Having just read the superb articles on the
Asian-American, I wanted to write and ex-
press my deep appreciation for this timely,
thought-provoking Special Feature.

In reading Kaneshige's article, "Cultural
Factors in Group Counseling and Interac-
tion," I wonder if it would be helpful to dis-
tinguish between the behavior of Japanese in
Japan and that of Japanese-Americans. Some
of your readers may assume it is the same.

It seems to be common knowledge that the
immigrants' experience of their mother coun-
try (including the values) tends to be
"frozen" at the stage at which they emigrated,
and therefore subsequent generalizations
made with respect to their values may not
necessarily be true in relation to their mother
country *at this time.* For example, under the
section entitled "Cultural Patterns in Group
Counseling," Kaneshige speaks of the Japa-
nese group member as being "deterred from

directly confronting other group members because he has been taught that it is impolite to put people on the spot," indicating that he does not pull his share of the weight in terms of the group.

Then again, Kaneshige indicates that the "admission and display of personal inadequacy, even in a counseling group, is a sign of familial defect, and this brings shame to the family." By implication, then, the Japanese-American would be highly resistant to sharing this type of data in a group setting.

While I do not wish to deny that these values exist and influence their behavior, Japanese in Japan, on the other hand, are and have been involved in group processes where they both confront others and admit to personal inadequacy. The Yokohama Counseling Center has been running T-Groups for about six years, and for at least as long as that Dr. Tanaka of Tokyo Kyoiku Daigaku (Tokyo Educational University) has been using group processes with "school phobic" children.

The movement in Japan seems to be a phenomenon of urban, progressive areas where Westernization is most prominent, where the individual Japanese is among his "own kind," and where he functions according to a new group value. The Japanese-American, though, experiencing the insecurity of being among people who consciously or unconsciously identify him as "different," exhibits the behavior of the *gaijin* ("guest," "interloper," "outsider") and therefore does not make a "good" group member.

Thanks again for the excellent treatment given this Special Feature.

CARL A. HOLMGREN
Northfield Junior High School
Northfield, Minnesota

Psychoecology Needs Helpers

I was particularly interested in Kuriloff's article "The Counselor as Psychoecologist" (January 1973) but viewed it with somewhat ambivalent feelings. The appreciation of the transactional systems model provides, as Kuriloff suggests, an important conceptual framework. Its implementation, however, may be more difficult than he suggests, despite his clarifying examples.

A system is defined as a group of elements that are interrelated; an open system is one that responds to input from outside its bound-

aries. For our purposes, when considering a family system, the elements are the members of the family unit. The transactional encounters between the members can be hypothesized to be the determinants of each member's behavior. This point is consistent with Kuriloff, but it can also be viewed within the functionalist position; that is, the child learns a functional coping style for survival within the family system. However, when the child has his first environmental (community) contact—usually the school—he discovers that what is functional behavior in one situation (home) is not necessarily functional in another situation (school). The tolerance for deviance by some actors in the system is low, and the distance that is created between members becomes high.

It becomes critical to deal with the members of the system, but that is difficult and time-consuming because family systems are not always open and responsive to input from outside their boundaries, nor are school personnel always open to change. To know the system intimately does not mean that one can in fact alter its equilibrium. If Kuriloff is correct, and I believe he is, perhaps the counseling profession needs to join other professions in more community involvement and training of subprofessionals. This psychoecological or transactional model, to be effective, requires more participation from more people, and that is going to be a major task and a difficult one. In fact, this may open up a major new subspecialty within counseling.

RONALD H. NELSON
Herman M. Adler Center
Champaign, Illinois

Relevant and Meaningful

I wanted to take a moment and convey my thanks to you for your efforts to make the JOURNAL relevant and meaningful. Our excellent Louisiana State University Library is near my home, and it is my pleasure to read every article.

The article "Credo of a Militant Humanist" (December 1972) was especially meaningful to me. I sincerely hope that I can look forward to future articles of this nature.

THOMAS SHULER
Louisiana State Department of Education
Baton Rouge

Alienation and Drug Abuse

In "Preventing Drug Abuse: Where Are We Now?" (April 1973) Richard W. Warner states: "Perhaps the two most important themes that the research supports are the factors of boredom and peer influence [causing drug abuse]." My own impressions drawn from counseling interviews with high school drug users support this statement.

In my sessions drug users indicate either an overall rejection or a total lack of caring from parents and school. Parents reject their children by attending only to their own needs and fears. I have heard too often: "I just don't want to see you wind up like those others" or "We just can't see you being a nobody when you have so much to offer, if you would only put your mind to something," etc., etc. Students invariably defend against this sort of rejection and turn to their peers as the only alternative. Teacher communication often comes across with the same total impact. Even more debilitating for some students is no overall message at all—either rejecting or accepting. This often occurs in large city schools or with parents who are never home.

Given these factors, the peer group often provides the only supportive experiences for a high school student, and drug use is often as much a group-type behavior as dancing or discussion. Drug use is often linked with community spirit and nurturing. It is positively valued by its user because it is associated with growth-producing activities.

Supportive school and especially adult contacts are necessary if disuse is to be valued over use and possible abuse. As long as school and home are alienating, students will turn exclusively to each other, with a concomitant use of drugs. School and home must be equally supportive to compete with the peer group.

JAMES L. WIDERMAN
Philadelphia Public Schools

Reply to Campbell

In his criticism of my review "Measuring Women's Interests: How Useful?" (April 1973) Campbell never deals directly with the article's main subject. He declares that my review is superficial, but his charge is substantiated only by the fact that I do not cite his *Handbook*. He lists fine reviews given his book, but he does not state what evidence in it contradicts my conclusion.

He criticizes my statement that the women's SVIB has not been extensively investigated. To conclude that 90 studies in seven years represent "extensive investigation" is unjustified when in the same period 483 studies of the men's form were reported.

More serious than these minor points is Campbell's failure to describe accurately both the aim of my article and its conclusion. My aim was nothing so vague as an assessment of "the current status of the women's Strong." My purpose, stated in four places—including the title—was to assess the SVIB's usefulness to counselors of women. I concluded that the SVIB does not indicate a wide range of vocational interests among women and that therefore it is not likely to be useful in most counseling situations. Whether this homogeneity of interests results from the nature of women's vocational interests or from the item content of the SVIB, as Farnsworth's data suggests, or both, is not at issue. To use Campbell's analogy, why use the bathroom scale if it records that most women weigh the same?

"Data is data," says Campbell, "and criticizing the measuring instrument is no solution." There is nothing sacred about the SVIB that should preserve it from criticism. If it is ineffective, it can't be recommended.

It is ironic that after his irrelevant defense of the women's SVIB, Campbell announces that he has abandoned it for a new "unisex" model.

CAROL MONNIK HUTH
Graduate student, Bryn Mawr College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

A Research Journal

The P&G JOURNAL today is indeed very meaningful to those of us who are patiently practicing in the field. However, I personally feel that another journal devoted to research would also be a good idea. Hopefully there is room for two journals within APGA. I certainly do not wish to see the present journal sacrificed for research.

LOIS E. RENTMEESTER
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, Illinois

Editorial

CONFIRMATION FROM THE MIDDLE EAST

Although I will be back home long before these words are printed, I am writing them in early March in Jerusalem, where I am spending the first two months of a sabbatical leave. Sitting here amidst more than 4,000 years of religious and cultural history, it sometimes seems trivial to write seriously about the problems of the 1970's.

Yet in my work here (mainly helping a counseling center staff to introduce new methods for supervising practicum students) I find myself snapped back into the 1970's. Here I am finding many of the same kinds of needs and problems I knew at home—changing values, conflicts among ethnic groups, special problems of "the disadvantaged," and pressures to meet both the manpower needs of a nation and the career development needs of individuals in a democratic society.

Although I have been here only three weeks, I am beginning to feel confirmed in two beliefs. First, although attitudes, knowledge, and insights are important considerations for one who wishes to become a counselor, they are not enough. To be effective, a counselor must be able to implement the attitudes, knowledge, and insights through a repertoire of skills and competencies. I believe that one of the main reasons for the precarious position of guidance in the United States is the failure of preservice and inservice education programs to help each counselor develop such a repertoire into a professional role that clearly makes a valued and distinctive contribution.

The other belief I am feeling confirmed in is that we have too often followed a logical rather than a psychological sequence in the education of counselors. We seem unable to extricate ourselves from the traditional pattern: First we store theories and principles and facts into the heads of our graduate students, and only later do we ask them to use this storehouse in any meaningful way.

To me it seems clearer every day that the prepractice study of theory is largely futile—an academic exercise that seems aimed mostly at preparing students to pass examinations. Practice oriented people learn their theory best when it is linked intimately with practical experiences. How often we have seen counselors in a practicum who are not only unable to interview, assess, or work with information but who act as if they had never even heard of these things.

By the end of my visit here, perhaps some of these ideas may change, but at this writing I am feeling more and more certain that, first, our entire field needs to pay more heed to the development of skills, and second, that counselor education programs, both preservice and inservice, will help practitioners most if they build everything on and around a foundation of carefully planned practical experiences. ■ LG

Synergistic man: outcome model for counselors

RONALD J. ROUSSÈVE

In this article the author revisits human nature in order to present it as a basis for guiding the quest for a working model of "optimal man." The author postulates that our primordial human nature encompasses the possibilities for both good behavior and evil behavior. Accordingly, the perennial challenge facing guidance workers is helping to establish conditions that will actualize positive potentials while defusing the less beneficent ones. Drawing on the insights of Ruth Benedict and Abraham Maslow in their search for an ethical gauge by which to rate personal-social health, the author proposes "synergistic man" as the desired outcome model for counselors and educators.

We are bombarded daily with a vast array of contrasting information about contemporary human beings, as a result of which we again find ourselves asking questions about the basic nature of man. Such questions have baffled philosophers for several thousand years, and the enigma of what human nature is really like will probably always challenge thinking human beings. At present, there appear to be three basic positions on the nature of man that are discernible in our culture.

THREE VIEWS OF HUMAN NATURE

First, there is the perspective that man enters the world in a state of wickedness —that he is innately perverse and debased, that he is born with evil tendencies. Indeed, as one follows the news media, one cannot help but occasionally feel drawn to this essentially pessimistic view of human beings. But for every

Adolf Hitler there is an Albert Schweitzer; for every Papa Doc Duvalier there is a Martin Luther King, Jr.

Sooner or later, then, one is prompted to investigate a second interpretation of human nature, one that is essentially optimistic. In this view man is a trustworthy entity, striving naturally for ends that are constructive and efficacious on the basis of his built-in tendencies to move toward that which is healthy. When an individual's behavior is judged irresponsible or socially unacceptable by those who apply external norms, supporters of this optimistic thesis tend to offer one or both of the following explanations: first, that the original human nature is good but can be adversely affected by the socialization processes spawned by organized society and second, that conduct that appears to be questionable when viewed externally can be seen in a genuinely favorable light if it is perceived from the subjective (internal) vantage point of the behaver himself.

However plausible these explanations of socially questionable human behavior may appear at first glance, closer inspection reveals them to be rationalizations lacking complete credibility. For example, it is inconsistent to assert the debased character of organized society while at the same time suggesting that the individual persons who comprise that

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society began life with built-in tendencies toward goodness. Moreover, to highlight a subjective paradigm for apprehending reality is to imply the equal validity of the different perceptions of reality that are discernible among human beings and therefore to endorse a specious ethical relativism. Consequently, both the "born with evil tendencies" and the "naturally trustworthy" conceptions of the original human nature seem untenable.

But there is yet a third conception of human nature that appears to be quite defensible when the mixed patterns of behavior of the whole human species are considered. This more balanced view of man contends that the original human nature is neutral and has propensities for both good and evil behavior. As Freud saw it, man's psychological character can best be understood as a kind of perpetual battleground on which tendencies toward constructive, responsible acts and tendencies toward selfish, manipulative acts are constantly striving for supremacy.

Jesse Owens, the black American who excelled in the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin, recently expressed this less fixed view of man in these words:

Fifty-seven years on this earth have shown me that men aren't basically evil. But they aren't basically good, either. The possibilities for both are always in us, and just because we did the right thing on Tuesday and Wednesday doesn't mean we're sure to do it on Friday and Saturday. You can't rest on your laurels where character is concerned, just as you can't stop breathing and expect to live simply because you've drawn fifty million breaths before that. Humanity isn't something you're given. It isn't a natural state of being. You earn it. You've got to work to be human [1971, pp. 90–91].

It is this more "pliable" concept of human nature that seems most credible. Moreover, the maturing human being is a *rational* animal. To describe man as a rational animal is not to imply that he is a being who invariably functions rationally but rather to suggest that his distinguishing attribute, the mark that

essentially differentiates him from other animals, is his power to reason—to apprehend reality on the conceptual level of consciousness. It appears clear that the exercise of man's rational power, unlike a lower animal's use of his senses, is not automatic. The decision to think is not instinctively programmed in human beings. To think is an act of choice, and man's free will, however limited, is activated by this fundamental choice: to think or not to think (Branden 1969). Of any proposition offered to him as good and desirable and of any declaration presented to him as the truth, a thinking person is prone to ask: Why? That "why" is the vestibule that the assertions of others cannot gain access to without his consent. In short, man is a creature whose biologically rooted nature is modified by the cultural arrangements designed by him and his fellows, through the exercise of reason, to enable them to cope with their circumstances.

BEYOND RELATIVISM—TOWARD SYNERGY

What this brief discussion of the nature of man points to is the never-ending challenge of identifying and implanting in man the nurturing conditions that will actualize the constructive potentials of human beings while defusing the less beneficent ones. For if we are not born with ready-made ennobling qualities, then favorable environments must be established to facilitate all individuals' exercise of their best thinking and willing potentials so that growth can occur in a healthy direction—in ways beneficial to themselves, to their society, and to the larger species.

But where are we to look for guidelines that will point toward healthy psychosocial directions for contemporary man? I believe that the insightful discoveries of Ruth Benedict and Abraham Maslow contain plausible sources of validation for the contention that the original, neutral human nature *can* be channeled

in the direction of fully beneficent forms of conduct.

Ruth Benedict, a cultural anthropologist, wrote the little classic *Patterns of Culture*. In this book she refused to argue for one style of life over another, and it was not until after her death in 1948 that a long-lost manuscript of hers was found that identified the principle she came to use in judging the moral worth or goodness of one society as contrasted with that of another (Harris 1970).

After studying the cultural characteristics of a significant number of primitive peoples, Ruth Benedict found that she needed a term for the continuum she had discovered that extends from one social pole—where any act or skill that benefits the individual simultaneously benefits the group—to the other social pole—where any act that benefits the individual is at the expense of others. She chose to call this continuum *synergy*, a concept drawn from medicine that describes a condition in which the component parts interact cooperatively rather than antagonistically, producing a holistic and benign result.

And so Ruth Benedict came to speak of cultures with *low synergy*, where the social system is characterized by acts that are mutually opposing and counteractive, and of cultures with *high synergy*, where the social structure is marked by acts that are mutually beneficial. In a society with high synergy, members help each other and live in harmonious interdependence; in a low synergy society, members tend to be mean, cruel, and competitive and to manifest aggressive self-centeredness at the expense of benefits for all.

Expanding on Ruth Benedict's concept of synergy, it is possible, in moving from the level of the good society to that of the good person, to portray "synergistic man" as having confidence in the mutual benefits that accrue from acting in complementary harmony with his fellows. He sees life as an arena of mutual interdependence in which, by reasonable collaborative activity, he can attain his own personal fulfillment. At the level of the individual or the level of the larger social group, the fundamental prerequisite for harmony and fulfillment appears to be reasoned federation for mutual advantage.

STUDYING THE SELF-ACTUALIZED

Like Ruth Benedict, Abraham Maslow, a pioneer among humanistic psychologists, also came to reject the notion of ethical relativity and asserted that there are basic, underlying human standards that are cross-cultural. His insightful book *Motivation and Personality*, published initially in 1954, was released again in 1970 and continues to grow in popularity among students of humanistic psychology.

Maslow asserted that one could learn a great deal about man and his potential from the study of exceptionally healthy and mature people. He contended that when we separate the healthy specimens from the rest of the population and ascertain what they struggle toward and what values are lacking among those who are psychologically sick, we can achieve an operational understanding of right and wrong. Only the choices, tastes, and judgments of healthy human beings are indicative of what will be good for the human species in the long run. The choices of such persons seem to be essentially the same around the world, indicating that the basic human aspirations are universal and cross-cultural.

In addition to his study of contemporary subjects, Maslow also analyzed the personality structures of such historical figures as Spinoza, Albert Einstein, Frederick Douglass, Eleanor Roosevelt, and George Washington Carver. Maslow's investigations resulted in his describing "self-actualizing" persons—those whose positive potentials are channeled into exceptionally high levels of development. Among Maslow's findings are the following:

• The self-actualizing person has a low degree of self-conflict. He is not at war with himself. His personality is integrated, showing an inner balance or rhythm, with respect, for example, to the assertion-compassion polarity.

• The self-actualizing person not only has a harmonious personality, but he sees the world in a unified way.

• Only one of the subjects studied by Maslow was religious in the orthodox sense of the word; nearly all had clear ideas of right and wrong based on their own experience rather than blind acceptance of religious "revelation."

• The self-actualizing person typically chooses to master life rather than be shunted about by it, working through frustrations and crises to forge renewed meanings.

• The relationships that fully mature people develop are better for themselves *and* for others and are never exploitative.

• The healthy individual shows far less fear than the average adult who is not so much influenced by truth, logic, justice, reality, and beauty.

• The self-actualizing individual is sufficiently philosophical to be patient, seeking or accepting slow, orderly change rather than sudden change.

In his comprehensive study of self-actualizing people, Maslow found that the individual who recognizes and seeks to gratify his higher needs behaves voluntarily in a manner beneficial to his society. Along with Ruth Benedict, Maslow also found that, under healthy conditions, personal and social interests are synergistic and not antagonistic.

Among the synergistic human beings of recent historical-cultural significance who have provided positive reinforcement for my own search for meaning are: John Dewey, generally acknowledged as America's foremost educational and social philosopher; Ralph Bunche, the late black American who served as under-secretary-general of the United Nations; Margaret Sanger, courageous American pioneer in the birth control movement; Bertrand Russell, British mathematician, agnostic philosopher, and social critic; Whitney Young, the late black American who was a civil rights crusader and national director of the Urban League; Norman Thomas, the American who espoused a humanistic political philosophy of democratic socialism. The lives of these persons were characterized by a rational altruism—by a definite synergistic quality that broadened them as well as their fellow men and that continues to serve as a tangible index of personal-social health along the lines of the Benedict-Maslow paradigm.

SOME EDUCATIONAL INFERENCES

The pivotal challenge for those who counsel and educate for personal-social health in the modern world is that of establishing the nurturing conditions that will draw forth people's positive potentials while discouraging the emergence of the less beneficent ones. The experiential conditions required to foster commitment to the ideal of synergistic humans in a peaceful, synergistic world would seek to connect rather than divide people; they would be designed to draw out the elements of people's common humanity. Accordingly, the kinds of developmental experiences that are essential to the task at hand would enable people to look beyond their own cultural encapsulation and apprehend the basic humanness of the entire species.

And the kind of education that we must foster should be liberal. It should help us Americans recognize, for example, that when it comes to high level public spending for high quality services, no Western country can match Sweden. Moreover, in the Swedish economic system, preferential tax loopholes are almost nonexistent.

Recent travelers to China have spoken of the social concern of the average Chinese citizen, who has learned to emphasize service over personal profit. This attitude is quite different from the attitude of the average American; in the United States conspicuous consumption and wastefulness are an ingrained part of everyday living. Indeed, the Chinese have made notable progress in the creation of a synergistic-equalitarian society. The wage differentials in China are extremely narrow, and the whole concept of service without particular regard to individual reward or economic incentive is an enormous experiment in collaboration for mutual benefit.

In short, to fall victim to ethnocentric narrowness is to be prevented from apprehending the common humanity of us all, which must serve as the foundation for the construction of a synergistic world community. Furthermore, it defies educational logic to try to envision the larger whole without giving consideration to the smaller interrelationships that serve as its underpinnings. Consequently, our interpersonal relationships at the grassroots level must not be neglected. For what we achieve at the level of the larger community of men will surely be but a function, in geometric progression, of the quality of synergy we manage to achieve at the person-to-person level. Perhaps John Griffin, the white author who some years ago stained his skin and passed as a Negro in the South and subsequently wrote the book *Black Like Me*, came to understand this better than many of us ever will. Through enlightened educational experience, there may still be time for mankind to internalize the synergistic commitment Griffin portrayed in the following words:

... I was living in the homes of Negro families and I was experiencing emotionally what intellectually I had long known—that the *Other* was not *other* at all; that within the context of home and family life we faced exactly the same problems in the homes of Negroes as those faced in

all homes of all men: the universal problems of loving, of suffering, of bringing children to the light, of fulfilling human aspirations, of dying. Therefore, the wounds that I had carried 39 years of my life were healed ... through the emotional experience of perceiving that the *Other* is not *other* at all, that the other is me, that at the profound human levels, all men are united; and that the seeming differences are superficial. The illusion of the "Other," of these superficial differences, is deeply imbedded through this inculcated stereotype we make of the Other, which falsifies man's view of man.

... I believe that before we can truly dialogue in depth, we must first perceive that there is no Other, that the Other is self, and that the I-and-thou concept of Martin Buber must finally dissolve into the *We* concept [1967, p. 124].

IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELORS

In these times of rejected traditions and confused attitudes toward the condition of contemporary man, it seems essential that counselors help those with whom they interact to build values that will serve them effectively. This implies that we need to seriously reexamine the old adage about value-free counselors and challenge much of the literature on counseling that continues to highlight "nonjudgmental, nonevaluative listening."

Psychological health as conceptualized in the model of synergistic man involves a sure sense of personal competence and autonomy blended harmoniously with an enlarging sense of people's common humanity. This means that the efficacy of an individual's behavior does not rest exclusively on private, subjective feelings but also on objective moral criteria that can be discovered and vindicated by careful inferential reasoning. Similarly, taking exception to the do-your-own-thing philosophy that is in vogue, Everett Shostrom recently presented an interesting variation on the synergistic theme in these words: "Independence is not *my* thing. For me, full reality is *interdependence* [1972, p. 16]."

For counseling to be instrumental in the quest for pervasive personal-social health in today's world, counselors must

move beyond superficial neutrality and toward a vigorous affirmation of the ethical positivism that furnishes the ultimate rationale for their services to humanity. It is the professional task of the counselor to help expand the client's perceptions as a basis for responsible, far-sighted choice making. The counselor enlarges the client's perceptual range and in so doing assists the client to discover a fuller spectrum of potential behaviors, meaning, and values. In addition, it is the business of counseling to uncover the assumptions that sustain the client's stresses, to help the client question and confront those assumptions, and to provide a reliable gauge for determining the direction of greater fulfillment. Nonevaluative, nonjudgmental permissiveness has limited usefulness whenever counseling is employed to generate genuine broadening of the client's perceptions as a basis for more healthful living. The incisive observations of Edward and Edith Daubner (1972) on this point are uncompromisingly direct:

The counselor's task . . . is to help the client to gain a perspective of himself as a being in a constellation of relationships, rather than as an isolate, and to help him realize that his deeds and choices have an impact for good or evil on every life he touches.

Counseling has become bogged down in the quagmire of subjectivism and . . . it might do well to engage in a searching reappraisal of the metaphysical assumptions on which it rests [p. 369–370].

The analysis presented in this article suggests that synergistic man, rather than a specious ethical neutrality, is the referent that today's counselor should cite in helping clients weigh alternatives and make responsible choices. Whatever different techniques and strategies individual counselors might employ to promote client growth, it seems reasonable to suggest that the general direction of change espoused by all counselors should be toward the ideal of synergistic man.

Robert Carkhuff too has now clearly placed some qualifications around such attitudes as "unconditional positive regard" and "nonretaliatory permissiveness." He has said:

A fully functioning person is capable of making value judgments concerning what is there and what is not there. The basis for his value judgments is simply this: Either the behavior is helpful or harmful to himself or others. If it is helpful to himself and/or others, it is "good." If it is harmful to himself and/or others, it is "bad." If it is helpful to himself and not harmful to others or not harmful to himself and helpful to others, it is "good" but capable of improvement.

The healthy person demands of himself no less than he can be. The fully functioning person demands of others no less than they can be at their developmental level.

He will make fine discriminations in communicating his positive regard for those behaviors that move the other person toward constructive development and growth . . . and conditionality or negative regard for negative behaviors [1972, p. 239–240].

As the field of counseling moves beyond the first 50 years of its evolutionary ascent, is it really too much to expect that counselors will now close ranks and confidently proclaim, through both their personal lives and their professional services, staunch advocacy of synergistic man as the mental health ideal for these times? ∎

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SOMETIMES SUNNY

You see me as I am and you
don't try to change me.
You accept me as . . .
sometimes sunny,
sometimes not.
At times I resemble a strong oak,
and at other times I'm as a child.
There are times when I appear as
a grassy field:
Wide and reaching.

Each time we come together
you see more of what I am,
And you become more a part of me.
And as we share our joys, pains,
and even our fears,
We become more real in the eyes
of ourselves and others.

We may be strange, but:
To be strange is beautiful,
to be
A friend of a strange person is
Even more beautiful.

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What the hell
are counselors for?
literary perceptions

BRUCE J. KREMER

The right to intervene in the life of another and the power helpers have when they do intervene are value-laden issues. Excerpts from nonprofessional literature are used to stimulate a reexamination of these issues as they pertain to counseling.

In Vonnegut's book *God Bless You, Mr. Rosewater,* he writes about:

. . . an America in which almost all of the work was done by machines and the only people who could get work had three or more Ph.D.'s. There was a serious overpopulation problem, too.

All serious diseases had been conquered. So death was voluntary, and the government, to encourage volunteers for death, set up a purple-roofed Ethical Suicide Parlor at every major intersection, right next door to an orange-roofed Howard Johnson's. There were pretty hostesses in the parlor, and Barca-Loungers, and Muzak, and a choice of fourteen painless ways to die. The suicide parlors were busy places, because so many people felt silly and pointless, and because it was supposed to be an unselfish, patriotic thing to do, to die. The suicides got free last meals next door. . . . One of the characters asked a death stewardess if he would go to Heaven, and she told him that of course he would. He asked if he would see God, and she said, "Certainly, honey." And he said, "I sure hope so. I want to ask Him something I never was able to find out down here." "What's that?" she said, strapping him in. "What in hell are people *for?*" [Vonnegut 1965, pp. 29–30][1]

What an important question for all of us to ponder! Combs and his associates suggest that those of us who are teachers, psychologists, and counselors know the answer to Vonnegut's question. They label these occupations the "helping professions" and state that we are all "concerned with the 'people problem,' helping people achieve more effective relationships between themselves and others or the world in which they live [Combs, Avila & Purkey 1971, p. 3]." Could it be, however, that Combs, long an advocate of perceptual psychology, is presenting us with a perception of what we believe we *should* be? Perhaps Vonnegut's question could be rephrased to read: What the hell are *counselors* for? Thus, it would serve as a stimulus for us to reexamine an important issue in the counselor's role.

THE RIGHT TO INTERVENE

Carkhuff (1969) has suggested that the would-be helper should be concerned about the critical question of the *right* of the helper to intervene in the life of another. This issue may be especially important for school counselors to examine, since the very title "counselor" carries a certain amount of power over

students—power to intervene in their lives.

It may be that the clergy, of all the various kinds of helpers, has the longest history of intervention in the lives of others. And still, in John Updike's novel *Rabbit, Run,* we learn that there may be disagreement on the question of right, even among the clergy. Jack Eccles, a young minister in the story, goes to visit Fritz Kruppenbach, another minister, to secure his help. He explains:

"You have a family called Angstrom."
"Yes."
"Their son, Harry, deserted his wife over two months ago; her people, the Springers, are in my church. . . ." He explains what he thinks has happened: how Harry has been in a sense spoiled by his athletic successes; how the wife, to be fair, has perhaps showed little imagination in their marriage; how he himself, as minister, had tried to keep the boy's conscience in touch with his wife without pressing him into a premature re-union—for the boy's problem wasn't so much a lack of feeling as an uncontrolled excess of it; how the four parents, for various reasons, were of little help; how he had witnessed, just minutes ago, a quarrel between the Angstroms that perhaps offered a clue to why their son—
"Do you think," Kruppenbach interrupts; Jack hadn't expected him to be quiet this long—the man certainly was no listener; even in his undershirt he somehow wore vestments—"do you think this is your job, to meddle in these people's lives? I know what they teach you at seminary now: this psychology and that. But I don't agree with it. You think now your job is to be an unpaid doctor, to run around and plug up the holes and make everything smooth. I don't think that. I don't think that's your job."
"I only—"
"No now let me finish. I've been in Mt. Judge twenty-seven years and you've been here two. I've listened to your story but I wasn't listening to what it said about the people, I was listening to what it said about you. What I heard was this: the story of a minister of God selling his message for a few scraps of gossip and a few games of golf. What do you think now it looks like to God, one childish husband leaving one childish wife? Do you even think any more what God sees? Or have you grown beyond that?"
"No, of course not. But it seems to be our role in a situation like this—"
"It seems to you our role is to be cops, cops without handcuffs, without guns, without any-

thing but our human good nature. Isn't that right? Don't answer, just think if I'm not right. Well, I say that's a Devil's idea. I say, let the cops be cops and look after their laws that have nothing to do with us."
"I agree, up to a point—"
"There *is* no up to a point! There is no reason or measure in what we must do." His thick forefinger, woolly between the knuckles, has begun to tap emphasis on the back of a leather chair. "If Gott wants to end misery He'll declare the Kingdom now." Jack feels a blush begin to burn on his face. "How big do you think your little friends look among the billions that God sees? In Bombay now they die in the streets every minute. You say role. I say you don't know what your role is or you'd be home locked in prayer. *There* is your role: to make yourself an examplar of faith. *There* is where comfort comes from: faith, not what little finagling a body can do here and there, stirring the bucket. In running back and forth you run from the duty given you by God, to make your faith powerful. . . . Anything else we can do or say anyone can do and say. They have doctors and lawyers for that." [Updike 1961, pp. 169–171][1]

Is it possible, as Kruppenbach suggests, that so-called helpers are really only playing cops and doing little more than meddling in the life of another? At least one author has indicated his belief that counseling can be used as a means of control; Thomas Szasz suggests that this use of counseling and other psychotherapeutic techniques in schools can be dangerous since "they may be used as instruments of psychological deception and coercion against captive, unconsenting, or unwilling individuals [Szasz 1970, p. 166]." It is his belief that all too often school members of the helping professions use their power over students to socially "adjust" the students without their consent to the school's notion of what they ought to be.

UNEXAMINED VALUES

This is indeed a serious charge since it implies that the helpers somehow develop a preconceived notion about the "proper

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place" students should occupy and then proceed to "help" them, without their consent, to achieve that state.

Arbuckle suggests this may very well be what happens. He points out that "unfortunately, in too many schools in this country, counselors as well as teachers perpetuate the cruel myth that minority and inferiority are synonymous, and that there is nothing that the person can do about it [Arbuckle 1972, p. 244]." *The Autobiography of Malcolm X* provides a graphic example:

And then one day, just about when those of us who had passed were about to move up to 8-A, from which we would enter high school the next year, something happened which was to become the first major turning point in my life.

Somehow, I happened to be alone in the classroom with Mr. Ostrowski, my English teacher. . . . I had gotten some of my best marks under him, and he had always made me feel that he liked me. He was, as I have mentioned, a natural-born "advisor," about what you ought to read, to do, or think—about any and everything. . . .

I know that he probably meant well in what he happened to advise me that day. I doubt that he meant any harm. It was just in his nature as an American white man. I was one of his top students, one of the school's top students—but all he could see for me was the kind of future "in your place" that almost all white people see for black people.

He told me, "Malcolm, you ought to be thinking about a career. Have you been giving it thought?"

The truth is, I hadn't. I never have figured out why I told him, "Well, yes, sir. I've been thinking I'd like to be a lawyer." Lansing certainly had no Negro lawyers—or doctors either—in those days, to hold up an image I might have aspired to. All I really knew for certain was that a lawyer didn't wash dishes, as I was doing.

Mr. Ostrowski looked surprised, I remember, and leaned back in his chair and clasped his hands behind his head. He kind of half-smiled and said, "Malcolm, one of life's first needs is for us to be realistic. Don't misunderstand me, now. We all here like you, you know that. But you've got to be realistic about being a nigger. A lawyer—that's no realistic goal for a nigger. You need to think about something you *can* be. You're good with your hands—making things. Everybody admires your carpentry shop work. Why don't you plan on carpentry? People like you as a person—you'd get all kinds of work."

The more I thought afterwards about what he said, the more uneasy it made me. It just kept treading around in my mind. What made it really begin to disturb me was Mr. Ostrowski's advice to others in my class—all of them white. . . . They all reported that Mr. Ostrowski had encouraged what they had wanted. Yet nearly none of them had earned marks equal to mine. It was a surprising thing that I had never thought of it that way before, but I realized that whatever I wasn't, I *was* smarter than nearly all of those white kids. But apparently I was still not intelligent enough, in their eyes, to become whatever *I* wanted to be.

It was then that I began to change—inside.

I drew away from white people [Malcolm X 1964, pp. 35–37].[1]

This "natural-born" advisor was perhaps not too much different from any of us in his need to examine his values. It should be no surprise, if this advisor is at all typical, that when popular authors write about counselors they provide us with an unflattering image. Bel Kaufman (1966) wrote about a school counselor who was described by her fellow teachers as a "Peeping Tom," a person to be avoided. John Hersey (1960) pictures his G (for guidance) man as an insecure, rigid, authoritarian person. And yet all of these—Jack Eccles, Mr. Ostrowski, Ella Friedenberg, Mr. Cleary —and all of us have entered into our work with the intention of helping other people, but perhaps we have spent too little effort in examining values.

One prominent current value held by counselors is that we are in the business of fostering positive mental health among those we serve. Well over 30 different systems of individual therapy and an ever-growing number of group methods have been developed to accomplish this goal. And yet, Lowe (1969) tells us that "positive mental health," as a concept, is a myth which simply provides us with standards for judging the rightness and wrongness of behavior. An absence

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of positive mental health implies a deviation from some moral, social, or legal ideal, and Lowe suggests that use of this concept will carry counselors into areas of social life where no problems exist and allow them to become ideological despots. "Men of science may force improvements upon others in a spirit of scientific do-goodism at the expense of personal liberty [Lowe 1969, p. 91]."

WHO HAS THE RIGHT?

Who has the right to intervene in the life of another? What direction should such intervention take? These are questions which seem nearly impossible to answer in an age which has lost faith in absolutes and in which fixed ideas about the nature of good and evil are gone. Even so, Lowe has also suggested that in our age counselors are called on by their clients to serve as "lay priests" and supply many of the behavioral guidelines once supplied by the priest and the social philosopher.

To avoid becoming arbitrary ideological despots, counselors must spend time examining their own values so as to find a firm basis for their pronouncements

and the ways in which they use power to intervene in the life of another. With Vonnegut, each of us might well ponder the question: What in hell are people for? ∎

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CLIENT-CENTERED CHAIRS

No chair was ever really designed to hold the turbulent or crushed spirits counselors encounter. Chairs contribute their structure to prop the client's posture or to give him a springboard for his dreaming or a place to jump from in avoidance of agony.

When a client wrestles with his inner self, the chair lends legs to be entwined around, armrests to be clutched, fabric to be caressed, flaws to be picked at, even hardness to test the world's reality with sensory receptors along the client's backbone. Smooth chairs can become a chute for the client who would like to slide more easily through life; they pose a problem to the man who would stay in one place for a while. Though the client may sit in an upholstered chair, soft, warm, and secure in texture, color, and shape, he may grip it tenaciously as if it were a stoollike perch ten feet above the floor, afraid of falling off and being hurt if he lets go.

In an effort to feel closer, the client may move forward to the very edge, seemingly unaware of danger. . . . On the brink, this client crouches to leap, no longer sitting. Is he watching the counselor to see if he will move to catch him?

Sometimes simple chairs become hovels, confessionals, cathedrals, prisoners' boxes, judges' pillars, and kings' thrones, in keeping with the self-images the clients carry. Chairs hold clients who are lonely, brace the weak who would collapse, and are trampolines, trapezes, curbs, hearths, and gallows, changing from hour to hour as the occupant wills.

In what other ways could inanimate objects of wood, cloth, canvas, metal, and plastic have a share in helping one person intimately, unobtrusively relate to another human besides by being client-centered chairs? Because of this unique relationship, I find it hard to believe chairs just are.

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Client as counselor: self-regulation strategies

L. SHERRY NYE

Recent research in counseling suggests the efficacy of teaching the clients to be their own counselors through the use of self-regulation procedures. This article explores three primary steps involved in helping clients to control their own behavior change: self-observation, self-monitoring, and self-regulation strategies. Self-regulation provides an affirmative answer to the question: "Is the client a counselor?" by promoting client responsibility and independence in the counseling process.

A quick perusal of the recent literature in counseling and psychotherapy reveals that one of the newest trends is the use of self-regulation procedures. In these procedures, counseling is viewed as a tool that enhances the people's capacity to develop means for regulating their own behavior. The counselor's task involves teaching the client the skills of behavior change. Clients learn how to manage their behavior to produce desirable consequences in their own environments.

Recent empirical investigations have yielded important information concerning the utility and efficacy of self-regulation strategies. In these studies, self-regulation has been used to control the weight of obese clients (Ferster, Nurnberger & Levitt 1962; Mahoney 1972), to control the nonverbal behavior of impulsive children (Meichenbaum & Goodman 1971), to modify self-concepts of individual clients (Kanfer & Duerfeldt

1968), and to increase the self-confidence of teachers (Hannum 1972). One of the most successful cases reported involved the use of self-control with a 22-year-old male client diagnosed as having ruminating thoughts about being brain damaged, persecuted, and odd, and recommended for institutionalization (Mahoney in press). Treatment consisted of a self-punishment technique to reduce self-deprecatory obsessions, plus a self-reward procedure to increase positive self-thoughts. At the end of 15 weeks not only was the client's psychiatric diagnosis changed, but he also successfully resumed his pursuit of a college degree.

SELF-REGULATION PROCEDURES

Self-control of many behaviors "is tantamount to a prerequisite for participation in the social community [Kanfer 1970, p. 178]." Self-regulation procedures promote independent functioning on the part of the client who initiates both the self-controlling responses (SCR) as well as the responses to be controlled (RC). Self-control procedures eliminate the counselor as a middleman and insure greater chances of counseling success because of the investment made by the client in the

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strategies for change (Hackney & Nye in press). Research supports the idea that new behavior is strengthened when responsibility for the change is placed on the individual involved (Cautela 1969; Secord & Backman 1964). Self-regulation procedures are most successful with clients when preceded by steps of self-observation and self-monitoring since "adequate self-control is encountered to a greater extent in individuals who have had better training in self-observation and self-monitoring [Kanfer 1970, p. 214]."

Self-Observation

Before change can be initiated, the client must first observe the behavior and the conditions (contingencies) producing and maintaining it. Observation refers to the act of identifying the particular behaviors in which the individual engages. Both overt behaviors (directly observable actions) and covert behaviors (feelings, thoughts, internal physiological states) can be observed and identified by a simple process such as recording or listing their occurrence. For example, in working with a teacher who is having problems with a disruptive classroom, both the teacher and students should engage in self-observation by identifying and recording their daily behaviors for a week or more. Or, in counseling with a student who reports difficulty in obtaining dates with members of the opposite sex, the student will be helped by identifying and recording the various behaviors or actions displayed when asking someone for a date.

Self-Monitoring

Self-observation is followed by monitoring of the behavior. Self-monitoring seems to affect behavior change by interfering with an undesirable habit and by encouraging performance of another, more desirable response. Self-monitoring involves both counting and charting the frequency (how often) or the duration (how long) of the behavior. For instance, a teacher may count frequent negative statements but few positive comments. Or, in terms of duration, the teacher may record much longer periods of talking than of listening. Self-monitoring may suggest similar conclusions about one's behavior by revealing that one student engaged in running around the room 10 times in one day or daydreamed every few minutes.

Classroom students and teachers can easily record frequency of a behavior with a pencil tally on a small note card. An individual client may choose to do so with a pocket counter or golf-score caddy worn on the wrist. The duration of a behavior can be counted with a watch, clock, or timer, which can then be reset to zero after the particular behavior ceases. After a week or two of self-monitoring, the frequency or duration tallies should be charted on a frequency polygon or a bar graph. Counting and charting can themselves often increase or decrease a particular behavior by illustrating progress that becomes self-reinforcing and provides impetus for subsequent behavioral change (Hackney & Nye in press).

Self-Regulation

In some cases greater change occurs when self-observation and self-monitoring are supplemented with additional self-regulation strategies. Inappropriate behaviors can be weakened by changing the conditions under which the individual's behavior occurs, by interrupting a chain of behaviors which leads to emission of the undesired response, or by implementing a self-punishment technique. Appropriate behaviors can then be strengthened by having the individual administer a self-reward system. Research suggests that self-punishment and self-reward systems are more effective when used as separate procedures (Kanfer & Duerfeldt 1968). In

other words, client behavior change occurs more rapidly when two different self-regulation systems are used simultaneously: one to decrease inappropriate behavior and the other to increase appropriate behavior.

For example, in using several self-regulation strategies for weight reduction with an obese individual, the client would first observe the eating behavior and the conditions surrounding it. The client would also monitor the frequency of daily eating responses and also the amount of daily time spent in eating behavior. The data gathered from self-observation and self-monitoring would be used by the client to implement self-punishment and self-reward systems.

To reduce eating responses, the client could first change the conditions under which increased eating usually occurs. If, for example, the client eats more frequently when anxious, other kinds of behaviors, such as relaxation, self-assertion, humor, or sexual behavior, could be substituted at those times instead of eating. The client could also interrupt the behavioral chain leading to increased food intake. At meals, for example, after one portion of food, the client's plate should be removed. Dessert and second portions of food would be avoided by drinking a glass of water or cup of coffee instead.

Eating behavior could also be decreased through a self-punishment system, such as charting of food intake and weight gain. Violation of a specified daily amount of food intake or any weight gain would result in the client's giving up some desired item or activity such as shopping, drinking, being with friends, or watching television. Charting also could be used as a self-reward procedure to reinforce weight reduction. If the client does not exceed a specified daily food intake, or when the client observes a specified weight loss, a reinforcer would be administered. In other words, the client would engage in something very

desirable and rewarding immediately following completion of the desired goal.

Feedback and Evaluation

One of the primary advantages of self-regulation procedures is that they provide the reciprocal reinforcement necessary for therapeutic change in counseling (Cormier & Nye 1972). In other words, both the client and the counselor obtain an accurate idea of the daily progress toward client goal attainment. Behavior change becomes rewarding to the client who "feels better" and also to the counselor who "feels successful." However, in this instance, the effectiveness of counseling is judged not only by feeling good, but also by actual documentation, since daily behavioral observation and monitoring provide continuous data for the assessment of the counseling technique with each individual client. Thus the counselor can assess his or her strategy based on the consequences for each client rather than on a predetermined modus operandi (Cormier & Nye 1972).

SELF-OBSERVATION, MONITORING, AND REGULATION: A CASE ILLUSTRATION

A 14-year-old girl who had seen school counselors and mental health workers since the second grade was referred to a practicum counselor at the beginning of ninth grade for "behavior problems." (The counselor in this case was Martha Bond, a practicum student under the author's supervision, completing her master's degree in Educational Psychology and Guidance at the University of Tennessee.) Discussions with the counselor showed that her primary problem could be described as either a poor self-concept, a lack of self-worth, or, as this counselor diagnosed, a learned habit of negative self-thoughts and feelings. In the initial interview the girl made many negative self-referent statements, including comments about her size, hair, skin, body, voice, and intellectual ability. The client's

identified goal was to "feel more happy with [herself]." The counselor translated this into behavioral terms as reducing the frequency of negative self-thoughts and increasing the frequency of positive self-thoughts.

It is often assumed that the introduction of facilitative conditions by the counselor will be sufficient to change a client's poor self-concept. Self-regulation strategies, however, emphasize the learned nature of a self-image and give the client direct control of the conditions that produce and maintain the negative self-thoughts. In this case, the client began by observing the conditions surrounding her negative attitude. Self-observation revealed that negative self-thoughts occurred most often when she was alone. Furthermore, the client reported feelings of depression which were observed to be a cycle of negative thoughts: One negative thought led to another and another and another. In addition, the client monitored the number of positive self-thoughts occurring each day with a frequency count; she subsequently charted these on a simple bar graph.

The counselor suggested several additional self-regulation strategies the client could use on a daily basis to reduce the frequency of the negative self-thoughts. First, the client could change the conditions under which the thoughts often occurred by spending less time alone and more time with friends and family. Second, the client could interrupt the chain of behaviors leading to her reported feelings of depression. That is, as soon as the client noticed one negative thought she could redirect her thoughts to an enjoyable, pleasing situation. Negative self-thoughts were also reduced through the client's use of a self-punishment technique. Each time the client noticed the occurrence of a negative self-thought, she snapped a rubber band worn on her wrist.

To increase the frequency of positive self-thoughts, the client used the self-monitoring charting procedure as one reinforcer of her progress. The counselor also asked the client to conduct a strengths test on herself: What did she see as her strong points? The client initially identified 11 things about herself she liked. Each subsequent day she also listed additional strengths about herself that she observed during the day. Listing of different strengths in this way served as a reinforcer of her positive feelings as well as her ability to control and modify her self-image. The charting of positive self-thoughts after two weeks of self-monitoring revealed that the frequency of positive thoughts increased by 50 percent during the second week, from a total of 38 thoughts during week one to 74 positive thoughts for week two. The student's listing of strengths increased from the initial 11 to 26 items in one week. This kind of documentation allowed both client and counselor to observe progress and to verify the effectiveness of the counseling procedure. Behavior change was also confirmed by parents and teachers.

THE CLIENT AS COUNSELOR

Most counselors strongly support the importance of client responsibility and independence throughout the counseling process. Typically this is accomplished by offering facilitative conditions to the client, by focusing on the client's concerns and goals, and by allowing the client to initiate direction within the counseling interview. This article suggests that the counseling interview can also be viewed as an opportunity for the client to learn self-control methods that can potentially be used by the client outside the counseling milieu. Greater independent functioning can occur through use of self-regulation strategies that assist the client to modify those aspects of the daily environment that produce and maintain undesirable as well as appro-

priate behavior. In this way, the client also operates as a counselor by demonstrating adequate management of both situational and chronic problems. ∎

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THE INVISIBLE CLIENT

She sits in her nest
of Vacancy
Thirsting for worms
to come seeking.
Alone and
embittered
No one to
feed her
or to teach
her to fly.
Without wings
She ceases
to exist!

Jo-Ellen Yale, graduate student
Ohio University
Athens, Ohio

AN ADMINISTRATIVE MONOPLEGIA

She went to drop a class,
And no one talked to her.
Not hello
Not goodbye,
Handed her the forms,
Secretary signed them for the Dean
With a stamp,
And never looked at her,
Sent her back to drop the class
With her dollar in her hand.

So with the proper forms,
And a rubber stamp,
And a dollar in her hand,
She dropped a class
Where the teacher couldn't talk to her.

Charles V. Coogan
Westfield, New Jersey

A generalist counselor in industry

DAVID SPEARE BENEDICT

The professional counselor can develop a viable function in the industrial setting, but it may not entail the highly specialized role of the traditional model. From the vantage point of an experimental position in a blue-collar business, such factors as role versatility, geographic mobility, flexibility in methodology, and interdepartmental team building are considered in initiating an unusual program. The first year's results are described and evaluated. The program seeks to bring all corporate resources and personnel to bear on satisfying any kind of human need. The main thesis is that the need of the client should determine the role of the counselor.

Counselors seek clarity and consistency in their role. Often professional workshops become intensely preoccupied with the particular founding father or movement with which the counselor is most compatible. Is it conceivable for counselors to accept a variety of seemingly disparate roles as they function within a prescribed setting? It is, if the counselor is to adapt effectively to the highly demanding, pragmatic conditions of a service industry, where employee needs vary as broadly as any cross-section of humanity.

In the spring of 1971, the position of Human Relations Counselor was established at a medium-sized (1200 employees) trucking firm in northern New Jersey. The president of the corporation had been discussing with business associates within and beyond the common carrier industry the possibility of employing a marriage- and family-oriented counselor. A mutual friend in an institution of higher learning, with whom he had tested his proposition, brought us together.

From the beginning, a number of functions were connected to the position, including individual and family counseling, personal growth courses, work-related problem solving, employee-administered benefit programs, corporate charitable interests, employee health and recreation programs, and some community relations projects. However, the overriding directive from the president, a dedicated humanitarian and philanthropist, was to do whatever was necessary to solve any kind of employee need. In that simple dictum lay the presupposition that the need of the client should determine the role of the counselor. To appreciate the significance of this assertion, one should understand the unusual requirements of the setting and the practical results of the program.

SETTING

The trucking industry is a highly decentralized operation. This particular company has 11 terminal units located in 5 northeastern states, and its executive office complex is divided among at least four different building locations. The largest single group of employees in one location numbers about 150 day office workers and supervisors. Mechanics, driv-

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ers, and platform men work night and day, comprising a majority of the work force on overlapping shifts of a 24-hour operation. The drivers, a third of the work force, are on the road all the time. Since the counselor's office cannot function realistically in proximity to the employee population, most counseling takes place in the field in a variety of settings.

The business is keenly competitive, and supervision maintains close scrutiny of productivity. There is no tolerance for laxness or unauthorized free time. Lunch and two coffee breaks a day are strictly controlled. All this makes entry into the work setting difficult and the cultivation of client/counselor relationships time-consuming. One might well ask how you establish a viable counseling program under these conditions. The answer calls for a considerable expenditure of human energy: weekly travel, long hours, availability 24 hours a day and weekends, and what might be called "catalytic" intervention—the counselor's ability to sense need and intervene on his own initiative for the client's good.

EXPERIENCES

Considering the challenge of the setting, it has been gratifying to discover there is an appreciable degree of counselor/client satisfaction in the program. In the first 12-month period, the counselor reported contact with 30 percent of the employee population.

Of the total number counseled, 77 percent presented non-work-related concerns, covering the following case-type breakdown:

Critical illness, injury, or grief	30%
Family problems	11%
Personal-emotional problems	9%
Financial problems	8%
Marital problems	5%
Social problems	2%
Legal problems	2%
Misc. information problems	10%

Clients presenting job-related concerns totaled 23 percent of the cases counseled.

The kinds of problems encountered were rooted in such areas as supervisory/subordinate communications; personality conflict; job-termination policy; personnel procedures; work-unit morale; disability and workman's compensation procedures; working conditions, hours, or fringe benefit complaints; supervisory training in human relations; labor-management conflict; and racial hostility.

Consultations averaged three to four sessions per person. The case load was evenly divided between employees working at the main executive office complex and those located at regional terminals, reflecting the actual employee distribution. Forty-four percent of the cases required hospital and home calls or sessions at nonbusiness locations. Fifty-five percent of the cases were referred by supervisors or channels within the corporate structure; the other 45 percent were client-referred.

The degree of satisfactory problem resolution or client adjustment is based on the counselor's subjective assessment, as reflected in interview notes and follow-up observation of or conversation with the client. Overall, the counselor believes that in two-thirds of the cases, both work- and non-work-related, the client benefited from some form of assistance. It is estimated that 12 percent of the entire employee population was aided.

When these results are compared with the 20-year study of the Hawthorne Researches at Western Electric (Dickson & Roethlisberger 1966), where counselor-employee contact ran 40 percent and client improvement 10 percent of the entire population, the counseling design and effort in this more limited and amorphous setting can be supported in a favorable light.

RATIONALE FOR THE PROGRAM

When the position of Human Relations Counselor was established, the rationale

for providing the service was threefold: to insure the ongoing personal interest of the owners in the welfare of their employees; to acknowledge the importance of dealing with human problems as well as operational ones; and to support a visible mental health program as the key to a vital and successful business. As the first year progressed, the rationale for counseling became increasingly tailored to the exigencies of the immediate setting.

First, there was the need to adjust to the characteristics of the client population. There is a blue-collar attitude against depending on professional counseling services. Workers naturally resist assistance because they have always made it on their own.

A strategy for overcoming this resistance was to develop a counselor-initiated, crisis-intervention approach with the employee. For the first six to eight months, the counselor became familiar with all operations and the functions of all office, union, and supervisory personnel, in order to develop a network of contact with employees in any location at any time. This entailed constant circulation throughout all work areas in order to maintain a high degree of visibility. Of special importance was the need to arouse the interest of supervisory personnel in informing the counselor when personal employee problems arose.

The result was counseling in a great variety of locations: local diners, bars, motel rooms, parks, truck cabs, hospital rooms, funeral parlors, lunchrooms, an employee's car or home, on the baseball diamond, in the bus to a company social occasion, or by long-distance telephone, inevitably at 3 or 4 A.M. This kind of availability enabled the counselor to stimulate the client's involvement with the counseling process.

Second, there was the need to develop a comprehensive team approach to the healing process, so that the quickest, most pragmatic assistance was available for the client. Because of time limitations pre-

determined by their work schedules, blue-collar workers are seeking short-term problem solving advice. Their needs are immediate and specific, except where marital or family problems become interpersonally complex, in which case the number of counseling sessions exceeded the norm for most other problems.

To get action on the employees' needs, a multidimensional or interdepartmental approach was taken wherein vital information or helpful corporate resources were acquired from such offices as personnel, safety, payroll, workman's compensation and disability, corporate counsel, the credit union, the business agent or union steward, and supervisory personnel. Such cooperation from the corporate staff rendered advice on legal, medical, or financial matters. The intent was always to take care of the employee's need first, no matter what effort might be required.

In order to maintain direct supervisory liaison with employee needs at terminal locations, a guidebook to referral services was created for all supervisory personnel, in which a broad variety of counseling agencies and resources were listed for every geographic area in which the employees resided.

Third, there was the need to balance the stress on problem resolution with an equally determined effort at prevention. If one is interested in the long-term results of any mental health program, then one must be committed to using policies, resources, and processes in the corporate setting which can create a climate that reinforces wholesome life conditions. A key to prevention is integrating those corporate benefits which complement the counseling process or which deal with employee problems before they reach chronic proportions.

For example, where financial problems are concerned, the counselor's liaison with the Federal Credit Union program, located on company property, offers the employee a disciplined plan of savings

and loan management. Thus, by means of a supplemental service, a family can be aided in weathering periodic financial difficulties. The counselor's involvement in employee-sponsored emergency funds has led to the collection of sizable gifts, which have been of tremendous help to families in dire straits.

For work-related problems, the counselor's quasi-ombudsman role has led to recommendations for changes in organizational structure, policy, and procedures which, when implemented, would alter the conditions of the work environment and hopefully prevent or reduce the possibility of problems being repeated or compounding themselves.

It may at first seem quite peripheral to the counselor's function to speak of assistance with recreation, charitable, and community relations programs. However, as these activities affect the physical health and emotional stability of employees, they become a vehicle for procuring data on unmet needs and focusing on the ingredients of a good life. Social and sporting events and the building of a company recreation center offer needed outlets from work frustrations and constructive ways for colleagues and families to spend time together. Along with the administration of a large charitable budget which supports agencies directly benefiting employees, both recreation and charitable activities give the employee a basis of security which no tailored health insurance plan could underwrite.

Even with social service projects in which employees participate directly or vicariously—such as the donation of a kidney machine to a local hospital, employee interest in a residential drug treatment center initiated by the company, or management's interest in motivating disadvantaged youth through a job-incentive program run jointly with the Urban League—a sense of corporate and community responsibility is stimulated which reinforces the proposition that ultimately life is more than work and that a man's true worth and destiny are in some ways tied in with the course of society and the fulfillment of humanity.

What emerges is counseling with a holistic appreciation of the work setting, where none of the contacts with employees are seen as tangential to the counseling process. Rather, all contexts of employee activity make up facets of a comprehensive mental health program. Whatever resources the company can contribute are used to sustain a need-oriented work environment. All the various functions for which the counselor is responsible can help to prevent employee or family breakdown. This may suggest a broader perspective of what counseling is or can become.

THE COUNSELING PRACTICE

The consequence of this comprehensive view of counseling is a series of rapid role shifts that make it difficult to define a uniform counseling strategy. The counselor's role is determined by the needs of the client as well as the context or environment in which the counseling is done. The following examples illustrate 10 different roles assumed in dealing with specific employee requests:

Troubleshooter—Checking on a union employee's complaint regarding an overdue compensation check.

Defense Counselor—Helping to develop a financial plan to assure a judge of an employee's payment of a small claims disposition.

Human Relations Mediator—Working through marital conflict at home and personality differences on the job.

Financial Advisor—Resolving family budget problems with an employee whose wage is being garnisheed.

Community Organizer—Formulating an employee disability insurance program to prevent undue financial hardship.

Teacher—Running enrichment courses for the development of personal goals and sensitivity to interpersonal relations.

Employee Advocate—Initiating a review of an employee's dismissal or lack of advancement.

Pastor—Reaching out to families undergoing some radical sickness or suffering some personal tragedy.

Health Watchdog—Stimulating a more thorough physical examination procedure to detect cardiac problems.

Referral Agent—Working with local agencies or private physicians in order to supply more specialized health care.

It is apparent from these examples that the role is generally active, not passive, and aggressively counselor-initiated, not gradually client-motivated. Although the counselor starts as a listener, his involvement escalates rapidly to that of communicator, facilitator, administrator/coordinator, confronter, appeaser, and reconciler. Often several role shifts take place during the solution of one problem. For example, for an employee who contracts a serious disease which places considerable strain on his family relations and financial resources, the role shift quickly moves from pastor to family counselor to financial advisor, and then on to health watchdog, community organizer, and referral agent in order to deal with all the ramifications of need in the family constellation. In this sense, there are no walls to form a perimeter around the counselor's role.

In contrast to counseling programs offered within an agency or office-type setting, this multidimensional role is appropriate due to two factors which constantly seem to frustrate the traditional route of therapeutic programs. First, people are usually "framed" by their own problems; that is, they become so immersed in the total milieu that provokes the problem that they do not have adequate perspective to face their problems soon enough. Consequently, problems can become so built into the pattern of life that they form a chronic need-part of the person's life. Second, and more specifically, few persons have an overview of the problem situation, so that the "right" people are not aware of the problem or do not get involved at the right time. The role versatility suggested here and the mode of functioning are an attempt to overcome these two critical barriers to problem resolution.

It should be noted that the industrial counselor has a counterpart in the more innovative college student personnel program, where client contact takes place in a broad variety of settings and relationships and where counselors see their ultimate objective as working with faculty, administration, and students to create a more vital campus environment.

PROBLEMS AND PROPOSITIONS

The multidimensional role of such a counseling position obviously creates its own kinds of problems, especially if the environment is disturbed by a lack of trust. Assuming that trust can be nurtured, there are a number of problems needing constant attention. First, there is the continual need to clarify role intent among supervisory personnel, so that they will understand that the counselor's freedom to become involved in any dimension of the employee's need is not to be interpreted as an invasion of the supervisors' domain. They must have a clear understanding of the counselor's methods. Second, both supervisors and employees must see the counselor as a part of a problem solving team representing the interests of both so that communication is facilitated and the most helpful resources are applied. Third, short-term counseling has resulted in too much first-aid treatment rather than root resolution of the problem. Only a long-term effort of building confidence in the demands and benefits of depth treatment would overcome this gnawing professional frustration. When dealing with work-related problems,

behavioral science oriented strategies applied to the total climate of a company are the kind of approach needed to deal with basic policy and organizational difficulties. Fourth, certain types of work-related problems in any corporate setup are of such a sensitive nature that an internal counselor will forever be sandwiched between the vying interests of supervisor and subordinate, management and labor, personal rivalries, and corporate profits versus the social good. No matter how benevolent a company is, there is always a multitude of interests which can undercut the counseling function. So the in-house counselor always walks a certain tightrope and invariably settles for less than what he would like to do.

Thus, another basis upon which a counseling model could be built can be suggested. Rather than a counselor hired by management within a particular company, why not an intercompany counselor, hired jointly by management and labor within a particular industrial field, with a third party governmental agency or educational institution acting as a monitoring agent in the oversight and evaluation of the function? Such a tripartite basis of sponsorship would have great advantage in preserving the counselor's immunity from parochial interests or power struggles, thus giving him better footing for tackling the root of the problem in the total business context. A neutralized base of support is needed for an experimental field which needs objective research in order to preserve professional integrity and to develop social responsibility, in the deeper sense, in the industrial community. ∎

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FOR ALL THE PASSING YOUNG FACES

The young faces drift through my days
like October leaves riding high waters,
all calling some helpless message to the currents
trembling for a rock, a shore, to stay their drift.

And I, moored safely at the bottom
like an aging turtle, calling my replies;
know that too many pass before they have a chance to hear.

Sally A. Felker
Hiram College
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Crisis centers and hotlines: a survey

JAMES B. McCORD

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Crisis centers and hotlines are relatively new approaches to the nation's growing concern for mental health problems. In order to provide information for those beginning a center, 253 centers were surveyed regarding five major aspects of crisis center operations: screening procedures for telephone listener-counselor applicants, training procedures, services offered, types of calls received, and financing. Resources for further information and for better communication among centers are identified.

Crisis centers and hotlines have experienced phenomenal growth during the past several years. This growth was in large measure a result of increased drug usage in this country and dissatisfaction with the operation of traditional counseling centers and community mental health agencies. Most such centers and agencies provide their services only during the day and require that the person come to the office; they are not designed to handle bad drug experiences and other personal crises which can occur at any time and which require immediate attention. Crisis centers and hotlines provide help during the "uncovered" hours and are as convenient as the nearest telephone. Telephone counseling also protects the anonymity of the callers and helps lessen the inhibitions they may feel in talking about personal problems. In addition, the telephone provides dissatisfied callers with a quick, nonthreatening method for terminating coun-

seling—they can simply hang up. This kind of built-in accountability is very appealing to most callers in that they retain control over the counselor and the help the counselor provides.

There are several current conditions which indicate that information about crisis centers or hotlines is needed. First, the establishment of a crisis center seems to be a bewildering task, particularly since few guidelines are available. On what basis do you select applicants for positions as telephone listeners? How do you train them? What services should be offered and when? How do you finance the service? These are but a few of the questions that new centers must answer. Second, there has been little communication among operating centers; an innovation at one center may well be another's established policy. This is closely related to a third condition, which could be called duplication of effort caused by too many centers in one area and an inability to benefit from others' experiences. The present study was undertaken to provide information for those establishing a crisis center, to improve communication, and to provide data on a national basis for existing centers.

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CRISIS CENTER DIRECTORY

In order to compile a comprehensive directory of crisis centers, the directors of counseling services of 446 colleges (including two-year colleges) and universities listed in the College Blue Book (1970–1971) and having an enrollment of 4,000 or more were sent a letter requesting the names and addresses of crisis centers in or near their community. It was assumed that most counseling center directors would be aware of the existence of crisis centers in their area and that many crisis centers were associated with colleges. A follow-up letter was sent to the nonresponding directors and to the chambers of commerce in their communities. An 80 percent response from these two mailings identified 588 centers and four crisis center directories: G. R. Bissiri, Los Angeles Hotline; J. Makstaller, University of Cincinnati; The Exchange, Minneapolis; and the Suicide Prevention and Crisis Service, Buffalo, New York.

After compiling the directory, a questionnaire was developed to assess characteristics of the crisis centers. To differentiate crisis centers from other campus or community mental health services, the following definition was used: A crisis center is a community service organization whose *primary* function is telephone listening or counseling. Of the 588 identified centers, 435 (74 percent) completed and returned the questionnaire between March and July 1971, and 253 reported that their service met the definition. The information which follows is based on these 253 centers and has slight variations in the total number of responses because of unanswered questions on the questionnaires.

CRISIS CENTER CHARACTERISTICS

The crisis center movement began in the early 1960's. Thirteen centers were in operation by 1966, and the rest of the 253 were added by 1971. Crisis centers are located in every state, with California

TABLE 1

Calls Received during February 1971
(227 Crisis Centers)

Hours Open per Day	Number of Centers	Total Calls Received	Calls per Center	Calls per Center per Day
1-4	7	883	126	4.5
5-8	29	8,867	306	10.9
9-12	23	6,466	281	10.0
13-16	14	4,991	357	12.8
17-23	5	6,244	1,248	44.6
24	149	127,834	858	30.6

having more active centers than any other. The centers tend to cluster in metropolitan areas, the three largest being Boston, Los Angeles, and San Francisco. With a few exceptions, the establishment of crisis centers began in the New England area and on the California coast and spread inland.

Hours Open. As is evident from Table 1, there is wide variation in the number of hours that crisis centers offer telephone services. Twenty-seven percent of the centers are open less than 12 hours per day, while 65 percent are open on a 24-hour basis. The fewest number of calls occur between 3:00 A.M. and 9:00 A.M., and the greatest number between 6:00 P.M. and midnight. The centers received a total of 155,285 calls during the month of February 1971, or an average of more than 113 calls per center per day. The crisis centers reported anywhere from 1 to 12 telephone lines available for calls, with an average of 2.6. The minimum number of listeners on duty at any one time to answer these telephone lines averaged 1.6 and the maximum averaged 3.4.

Staff and Staff Supervision. The number of staff members needed by a center is related to its resources and the demand for its services. The number of full-time staff ranged from 2 to 200 per center, with a mean of 11.2. The number of part-time staff ranged from 2 to 150, with a mean of 26.3. The average full-time

listener worked 43.8 hours per week, and the average part-time listener worked 6.7 hours per week.

There is little agreement among center directors concerning how often supervisors of the telephone listeners should be present. The amount of time supervisors were present was evenly divided among four categories: always, usually, occasionally, and seldom or never. Those centers where supervisors were seldom or never present had detailed screening procedures, sometimes including the requirement of professional credentials and comprehensive training programs.

Staff Screening Procedures. The screening procedures used by the centers are summarized in Table 2. Three-fourths of the crisis centers use the training procedure itself as a screening device. Of the few (34) centers which use psychological testing, half prefer the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI); the next most popular instrument is the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). A majority (67 percent) of the crisis centers did not report having minimum educational requirements for their telephone listeners. Where educational requirements are used, they often are related to the particular services offered by the center or the center's locale.

To date there is almost no empirical evidence concerning what kind of person makes the best telephone listener. Consequently, subjective evaluations are generally used. The most frequently mentioned desirable characteristic was empathy, but even this trait was identified by less than one-fourth of the centers. The fact that 40 different characteristics were reported as being "most desirable" indicates that there is little current agreement concerning personal characteristics of listeners.

Listener Training. Once applicants have been screened, the next step is to train them in interpersonal skills, crisis intervention techniques, knowledge of drug terms, youth slang and culture,

TABLE 2

Screening Procedures for Staff Positions (250 Crisis Centers)

Procedure	Number of Centers	Percent [a]
The training procedure itself used as a screening device	185	74.0
A one-to-one screening interview by director or staff	171	68.4
A group screening (to observe how applicants respond to each other)	107	42.8
A formal (specific sequential step) screening procedure	78	31.2
Screening by a psychologist or psychiatrist	65	26.0
Psychological testing	34	13.6
Other	20	8.0

[a] Total exceeds 100 percent because centers generally use a combination of procedures.

familiarity with other service or outreach agencies, and a host of other things depending upon the particular services offered by the center. An average of 50 hours is devoted to the training of telephone listener-counselors. Most centers (86 percent) use a formal (specific sequential steps) preservice training procedure. Of the eight methods listed in Table 3 (p. 726), none is used by half of the reporting centers.

Services Offered. All centers in this study, by definition, offer telephone listening-counseling services. The primary additional services offered are presented in Table 4 (p. 726). The "Other" category in Table 4 includes such services as emergency medical and free clinic services, rumor control, job placement, co-op (purchasing) services, birth control, pregnancy and abortion information, daycare for children, telephone surveying and answering services (sometimes for income purposes), craft and other free university courses, and rehabilitation programs.

TABLE 3

Techniques Most Frequently Used in
Training Programs for Telephone Listeners
(253 Preservice Programs)

Technique	Percent of Centers [a]	Average Number of Hours Devoted
Discussion	40	6.0
Roleplaying	39	5.6
Lecture	35	6.2
Answering phone under supervision	33	9.8
Observing staff during working hours	32	9.0
Sensitivity training	22	7.7
Listening to tapes	20	3.2
Films	10	2.2

[a] Total exceeds 100 percent because centers generally use a combination of techniques.

Few of the centers in this study discontinued any of the services they had initiated. Those services which were discontinued, however, were primarily for drug users, i.e., walk-in services, detoxification centers, heroin rehabilitation programs, chemical analysis of black market drugs, and crash-pad services.

Types of Calls Received. Most of the calls received by the crisis centers concern drug abuse. The proportion of drug related calls, however, varies greatly (2 percent to 80 percent) from center to center. The other types of calls received and the percentages of each type are given in Table 5.

Financing. By far, the most important problem facing crisis centers today is money. Some centers open and begin operation in financial splendor; undetermined numbers fold the first year. The median operating budget for the 209 crisis centers which answered this question is $10,000. The range, however, is so broad that this figure has little value. Seven centers operate on annual budgets of $200 or less, while 15 centers operate on annual budgets of $100,000 or more.

Slightly more than half of the centers

in this study add to their income by charging fees for certain services. Most of these services are either medical or therapeutic in nature or such things as educational programs and services and speakers' bureau services. Nearly all centers charging fees use a sliding scale based on one's ability to pay.

Nearly half of the centers in this study do not charge fees for their services and are totally dependent upon agencies and institutions for financial support. Table 6 identifies agencies supporting crisis centers. Federal government agencies which provide grants include National Institute of Mental Health, Justice Department, Law Enforcement Assistance Council, Work Study Program, Safe Streets Act, and the Health, Education and Welfare Department. Agencies in the "Other" category in Table 6 include city and county government offices, local tax assessment programs, center fundraising activities, local mental health agencies, individual donors, foundations, college student senates, student self-assess-

TABLE 4

Services Most Frequently Offered
(253 Crisis Centers)

Service	Number of Centers	Percent [a]
Telephone listening/counseling (by definition—100 percent)	253	100
Referral services	252	99
"Walk-in" services	127	50
"House-call" services	127	50
Practicum setting for students in helping professions	114	45
Information services	109	43
Organizer for group counseling opportunities	94	37
"Freak-out" services	79	31
Referral agent for academic tutors	62	25
Other	35	14

[a] Total exceeds 100 percent because centers generally offer a combination of services.

TABLE 5

Types of Calls Received (230 Crisis Centers)

Type of Call [a]	Percent
Drugs, except legal problems	20
Relationship: problems based on relationships with other people	13
Home life: problems based on life at home	11
Resources: need of outside resources not covered in other categories	10
Sex and pregnancy	9
Dating and marriage	8
Feelings: not specifically related to any category; general counseling	8
Suicide: contemplated, threatened, or attempted	6
Crank calls: cop-outs, no problems discussed	6
School	5
Legal and draft: includes arrest, legal problems, and draft information	4

[a] All of the 230 centers were required to make their categories of types of calls received conform to the list of categories above. Since few centers use the same categories, the transference of percentages may result in some error.

ments, campus organizations, service clubs, and community action programs.

Operational Expenditures. Two-thirds of the centers in this study do not pay rent on their physical facilities. Donors of facilities include colleges and universities, mental health offices, churches, and hospitals. With few exceptions, crisis centers have more part-time staff than full-time staff, and nearly all part-time staff work on a voluntary basis. A majority (61 percent) of the centers pay salaries to their full-time staff. The 42 centers which do not compensate any of their full-time staff employ 91 percent of the full-time staff in this study. Almost all (93 percent) crisis centers have professionals available for back-up on crisis calls, and 36 of their centers pay these professionals for their services. Eighty-four centers also pay liability insurance premiums covering both professional and nonprofessional staff.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

Establishing a crisis center is not as difficult as it may seem, and the average of 113 calls per center per day found in this study suggests considerable need for such services. If a church, mental health agency, or college will donate a room and two telephones for the evening hours, the center can go into operation. However, most centers eventually secure their own facilities. Experts within the community can be called upon to serve as advisory members and provide initial training. Publicity can be obtained through grants from institutions, donations from the media, or the traditional community fund-raising techniques. In some cases the latter is preferable in that the technique itself provides publicity and tests the degree of community support. The variety of crisis center characteristics found in this study indicates how completely the service is a reflection of the needs and resources of each particular community.

Finding people to staff crisis centers is seldom a problem, primarily because crisis centers, like other volunteer services, provide opportunities for people to help others. Volunteers frequently come from many segments of the community: housewives who wish to serve, profes-

TABLE 6

Financial Resources (209 Crisis Centers)

Agency	Number of Centers Receiving Aid	Average Percent of Budget
College—universities	55	71.7
Federal government	24	58.1
State government	48	52.0
Charitable organizations	78	41.5
Corporations	17	27.5
Churches	52	23.2
Private businesses	31	21.5
Other	136	44.7

sionals who desire the personal contact, minority members who wish to aid their cause, and students who seek meaningful and relevant experience. Selection of the staff can initially be by the local advisory experts. Some centers retain their experts in an advisory capacity as a liaison to the community but replace them in decision making and training activities with those staff members who have successfully served 50 hours or more in the center.

As the number of centers continues to grow, the competition for state and federal funding for the general operation of individual centers will be increasingly competitive. State and federal aid may be allocated more frequently to centers capable of doing research, the results of which can be generalized to help all crisis centers. Future budgets might well be planned on available monies from local sources.

A needed step in the crisis center movement is some further type of national organization such as the Third International Hotline Conference held in June 1972 and planned by Ken Beitler of The Exchange in Minneapolis. In addition, a medium for sharing problems and new ideas is needed, such as the two existing newsletters *Hotline Newsletter* (P.O. Box 515, Sierra Madre, California 91204) and *The Exchange* (311 Cedar Avenue South, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55404). The Exchange also publishes a *National Directory of Hotlines, Switchboards and Related Services*. Learning by trial and error will hopefully decrease, and crisis centers will become more efficient in meeting the growing concern for mental health problems. ∎

Orienting
Junior High Parents

ERNA EVANS

As schools have grown larger and more complex, school-community relations have tended to deteriorate. Parents talk about the disappearance of the personal element. They are confused about whom to contact in order to discuss the particular needs of their child. In fact, they appear fearful that the schools are no longer interested in the individual student and that one pupil's concerns may seem trivial to this impersonal bureaucracy.

Counselors and administrators at Central Junior High School in Rochester, Minnesota, have observed this trend with dismay. It has been apparent for several years that parents of incoming seventh grade students suffer from many apprehensions, the most prevalent of which is that the individual student will be lost in a sea of anonymity. In our case, this problem may be aggravated by the fact that Central is a large complex consisting of two buildings joined by a long tunnel.

CAN WE MAKE A BIG WORLD SMALLER?

During the summer of 1971, the four Central counselors employed on eleven-month contracts telephoned parents of

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incoming seventh grade students. Having the opportunity to communicate directly with the school seemed to give parents a feeling of security as their children left the relatively small elementary school to enter the comparatively large secondary school. Most of them expressed gratitude for being given the chance to inquire about various matters of personal concern.

Consequently, in the summer of 1972, two of the counselors planned and carried out a project that they hoped would alleviate the anxieties of the parents and subsequently of the students. The counselors expected to supply general information about the school, explain the school's role in the community, stimulate an exchange of viewpoints among the parents, and help parents understand their junior high sons and daughters.

Since only two counselors were working on the project, it was not feasible to contact and meet with parents of 460 seventh grade students in the time period from 19 June to 14 July 1972. Therefore, the criterion for selection and inclusion in group sessions was that participants had to be parents of the first child in the family to enter seventh grade at Central Junior High in the fall of 1972.

A form letter was sent to each of 131 seventh grade students' parents who met the criterion, inviting them to participate in small group sessions with the counselors and other parents. The letter

included a statement of the twofold purpose of the sessions: providing the dual opportunity for parents to ask questions and meet people who shared their concerns. The letter asked parents to call the guidance office and inform the counselors of their choice of 14 possible dates for morning, afternoon, and evening sessions. A certain risk was involved, since the counselors had no idea how many, if any, parents would respond. Needless to say, they were elated by the response of over 40 percent of the parents contacted.

Originally four evening meetings were scheduled to accommodate working mothers and to encourage fathers to attend. Because 44 of the 55 responding families chose evening sessions, three more were added to the calendar and several daytime meetings were canceled. To encourage free discussion and active participation, an attempt was made to keep the groups at a maximum of 10 to 12. A few groups were actually smaller, but most were larger in order to accommodate the 100 parents who participated. The counselors felt that those sessions with 10 to 12 parents effected the greatest exchange of opinions in a relaxed atmosphere.

OFF AND RUNNING

The counselors decided that meetings should not be highly structured. As an icebreaker, parents checked a list of characteristics they believed were typical of students at each grade level in the junior high. The same list had been checked by each of 92 teachers at Central in the spring of 1972. A comparison of responses by teachers and parents is summarized in Table 1.

Since none of the parents had children at the eighth and ninth grade levels, many were astonished when they compared their responses with those of the teachers and somewhat shaken to discover that parental approval at those levels was replaced by peer approval. Parents had anticipated that their children would remain stable throughout junior high, expecting them to be enthusiastic, cooperative, and loyal. After examining the results of the teacher survey, a number of parents decided to skip eighth grade! Counselors assured them that the unenthusiastic, uncooperative, self-centered, rebellious, unpredictable, and aggressive eighth grade syndrome passed and that the ninth grade student became a much more tolerable creature.

TABLE 1

Typical Characteristics of Junior High Students: Teacher and Parent Perceptions

	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9	
Characteristic	Teachers (% Responding)	Parents (% Responding)	Teachers (% Responding)	Parents (% Responding)	Teachers (% Responding)	Parents (% Responding)
Enthusiastic	100	86	31	77	46	72
Cooperative	87	93	37	86	64	77
Self-centered	30	29	69	22	42	26
Rebellious	7	10	61	11	40	21
Unpredictable	46	26	78	21	38	29
Lethargic	9	11	30	5	34	10
Conforming	65	36	63	28	46	30
Loyal	48	81	24	76	46	72
Humorless	6	6	9	3	30	4
Aggressive	30	36	52	39	18	45
Impatient	65	53	70	41	38	41
Feeling misunderstood	24	33	50	30	46	33

Following this preliminary exercise, most sessions concentrated on the list of topics the counselors had compiled from telephone conversations with parents early in the spring: drugs, dress code, academic programs, homework, discipline, confidential records, grading, communication, and extracurricular activities. Naturally, the depth of discussion on various topics depended on the group, but there were reactions to those particular topics in almost every session.

The prevalence of drug abuse worried parents more than did any other topic. They were anxious to cooperate with the school to prevent drug traffic and asked for help in detecting symptoms of drug use in their own children. Several parents insisted that drug traffic existed in the school, but the counselors assured them that, despite close surveillance by all staff, not one student had been apprehended for possessing drugs during the 1971–72 school year. In fact, only one instance of drug abuse occurred, when a girl who had taken an overdose of Darvon, which she had brought from home, passed out for a brief time in a classroom.

DOWN WITH THE SUPREME COURT AND OVERTIME!

Counselors found themselves cast in various roles. At times they served as resource people, educators, discussion leaders, and, occasionally, moderators. Discussions were lively and, in the following instance, heated enough to tax the counselors' diplomacy. A father accused the administrators of making no attempt to control student behavior. He argued, "The kids can dress as they damn please, play truant, roam the halls, and smoke in the can. Why don't you people [school personnel] do your job?" This bombshell led to varied reactions by parents and counselors. The gentleman was asked how he would handle these situations. His solution was suspension; he insisted that he would sus-

pend every student found in a smoky lavatory. No one agreed with him, and one mother tartly observed that he would be the first to object if his daughter were treated in this fashion.

The counselors pointed out that school administrators are bound by Supreme Court decisions in cases regarding students' rights. That august body would have found it difficult to convince some militant dissenters that public schools cannot regulate student dress as parochial schools do. One woman provoked laughter when she exclaimed, "Believe me, my daughter isn't wearing pants to school!" There was an exchange of divergent opinions, especially from the mothers who were dressed in slacks. A number of parents felt they were in a dilemma. They were afraid that if they insisted that their children dress differently from the norm, the children might be ostracized; but there seemed to be little real animosity, even when opinions differed. Counselors informed the group that, on almost any given day, school dress ranged from hot pants to maxiskirts.

Because a number of parents presumed that school records might have a negative influence on their children at some later date, counselors brought photostatic copies of actual records, with names removed, for parents to examine. One father asked what value standardized scores have. He said, "I'd rather trust teachers' opinions than any computerized test score." Other parents believed standardized tests were more objective than teachers' evaluations, particularly in instances where student-teacher rapport was poor. Counselors stated that such tests were only one of the tools used by the school and that teachers are certainly expert judges of a child's capabilities.

A number of parents requested clarification of the terms *accelerated*, *regular*, and *basic* programs. Some were confused about the advantages and disadvantages of each. One set of parents attacked the

accelerated program because "it discriminates against the bright child. We refused it for our daughter, because she couldn't make A's in there as easily as she could in regular classes." Other parents whose children had been placed in regular classes felt that any child who desired should be given the chance to try the accelerated program. The counselors suggested that these parents could come in for a conference, because, even when students are carefully screened, errors in placement certainly can occur.

Although the counselors attempted to answer all questions, they could not find a satisfactory solution to the question "Why must boys swim nude?" They turned that one over to the principal. We are not sure he has a good answer.

Parents are frequently accused of exerting undue pressure on their children, but those who attended the group sessions voted a resounding "Nyet!" to homework. Central has a long day—8:10 A.M. to 3:25 P.M., with less than half an hour for lunch—and the majority of parents disapproved further study at home. One father summed it up with, "I don't want to work overtime every night. Why should my kid? Anyhow, I couldn't even work his *sixth* grade math."

Many other topics were touched on, including communications and extracurricular activities. Parents who wished to explore topics further were encouraged to make private appointments.

WAS IT WORTHWHILE?

Parents expressed appreciation for having been given the opportunity to discuss what they feared might be insignificant questions—until they discovered that other parents had the same concerns. One mother said, "I was really scared to have my son come to Central. You know, I heard there were rats in the tunnel and the kids were all tough. All these other people are like me and worried about the same stuff I am. Am I glad I came!"

While objective data is hard to gather in an experiment of this nature, the counselors concluded on a subjective basis that the sessions were successful. They based their conclusions on the following:

• Forty percent of the total number of parents invited made their appointments in response to a form letter.

• Parents attended evening meetings in midsummer in a building without air-conditioning.

• The original plan to meet for an hour at a time fell by the wayside, and most meetings lasted at least two hours. Parents created waves in the community, and other parents called to ask why they hadn't been included.

• Counselors have had more telephone calls from and more conferences with parents this fall than in past years. The calls reflected parents' confidence in the school's ability to solve personal problems of individual students.

• Parents have responded to the one-night-a-month office hours that counselors recommended.

• Teachers have asked to become involved in future sessions.

A LOOK TO THE FUTURE

The counselors recommended that the project be extended during the 1972–73 school year by setting aside one evening each month when parents could, by appointment, see counselors. Teachers were invited to participate if they wished. It was further recommended that parent sessions be held in the summer of 1973.

A strong school-community relationship is vital to the success of any educational system. In our opinion, mass communication does not accomplish what personal contact does in building that relationship. Hopefully, the Rochester community now has a sound foundation on which we can build. ∎

A Careers Course

LOYD A. JOHNSON
RON MARTIN

With the increasing emphasis on career guidance, many counselors find themselves with perplexing problems: not where to find career information, but how to organize it in a meaningful way, how to disseminate it effectively, and how to use it to best advantage. To meet these demands, our large suburban high school has revived, with great success, the idea of a careers course.

Since the school has nine-week elective English units for juniors and seniors, and since the two counselors interested in developing the course were formerly English teachers, the course was placed in the English department. An added advantage was that students could elect the course—more, incidentally, than could be accommodated. There is no reason, however, why the unit could not have been taught to other grades or by other subject area teachers.

On the first day of the class, students were given an overview of the course and were asked to complete a student descriptive summary. They stated, among other things, their plans after completing high school and occupations they had been or were considering. The remainder of the first week was taken up with testing, using the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Kuder Vocational Preference Record. After scoring their Kuder and drawing their profile (the Strongs were mailed out for scoring), students were called to the counseling center for individual conferences with the coun-

selors. Here, they considered their profiles along with suggested occupations in the Kuder manual and their abilities as shown by the data in their permanent records. Students and counselors also used the Chronicle Guidance Publications' Occupational View Deck for additional suggested occupations.

During the first week of tests and individual counseling, the course was formally planned. The counselors read the students' descriptive questionnaires and arranged for films, field trips, and speakers on the basis of students' stated interests and interest test results. In one quarter course, for example, the following speakers addressed the class: a personnel officer from the U.S. Civil Service Commission, a representative from the U.S. Department of Agriculture Forest Service, a career counselor from the Virginia Council on Health and Medical Care, a YWCA executive board member who spoke on equal opportunities for women, a Selective Service representative who pointed out draft obligations and career opportunities available through the armed services, and a personnel worker from Chesapeake and Potomac Telephone Company who gave the class hints on making a good impression in the job interview. Guest speakers usually brought pamphlets for the class and extra copies for the guidance reading room. Students in other classes were informed of these visits and welcomed to attend. Talks by guest speakers were recorded for later use by students not enrolled in the class.

The class took field trips to a large department store and to a local naval installation, where students heard about a work-study program for potential engi-

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neers and apprenticeship opportunities for those not planning to attend college.

In class, students followed the entire job-seeking process. They were told of places to look for employment, and they practiced locating interesting jobs in the classified ads and responding to the ads by mail. As a part of this exercise, students were instructed in the mechanics of a business letter. They also filled in application forms, wrote resumes, took a personnel test, and practiced interviews. Many of the films for the class dealt with these points, whereas others dealt with specific occupations.

One of the most valuable experiences, according to the students, was their work with job descriptions. One of the guidance secretaries gave an orientation lecture concerning the sources of occupational literature available in the guidance reading room. Students then wrote descriptions, due at two-week intervals, of jobs which interested them. Fourteen points were covered, including interviewing someone already at work in the field and finding sources of more information. Students gained more letter-writing skills by requesting information from these sources. (Often they requested two sets of information and gave one to the guidance reading room.)

The class subscribed to *Career World*, a magazine written especially for high school students. Each month it features lengthy articles on two occupations and highlights many others. Its "For More Information" sections and its letters to the editor are also of value.

As the class drew to a close, all students and a few parents were asked to evaluate the experience. Responses were overwhelmingly favorable. Most felt that even if the class had not caused them to make a definite occupational choice, they had learned a process that would be useful throughout their lives. Others were thankful for the experience offered regarding business forms and interviewing, both of which are crucial to employment but are seldom taught in other courses.

Both counselors involved were pleased with the results and anxious to start the course again with a new group of students. After teaching the first quarter together, each now has his own class, with another counselor assisting, so that different counselors can learn the technique and the course can be offered more often. One of the original counselors is at work on a shorter version of the course which can be used by individual students with a minimum of counselor help. ∎

Counseling Outreach in a Dormitory

JOHN R. THOMPSON

PAUL FIDDLEMAN

This article reports the results of a pilot counseling project undertaken at the University of North Carolina (UNC) at Chapel Hill, where the emphasis was on using graduate student personnel to provide counseling and supportive services within the university residence hall environment.

The project aimed at developing and demonstrating a model to provide counseling services in a framework different from rather "traditional" approaches and

more like those used by community mental health programs in our country (Bellack & Barter 1969; Gildea 1959; Glasscote et al. 1964; Grunebaum 1970; Klein 1968; Williams & Ozarin 1968) and by campuses with a much less medical-psychiatric orientation to their programs than is true at the UNC campus (Bloom 1970a, 1970b; Warnath 1971).

THE PROJECT

On the UNC—Chapel Hill campus, mental health problems are traditionally conceptualized as medical responsibilities and handled by a small psychiatric service affiliated with the student health service. There is no counseling service on the campus, and the Guidance and Testing Center, which sees a small percentage of the student population (3 to 4 percent), rather strictly limits its services to educational and vocational counseling.

A counseling team of four graduate students (clinical psychology, counseling and guidance, medicine, nursing) supervised by the junior author provided services to undergraduate students in a high-rise coed dormitory housing some 900 students. This team was committed to an interdisciplinary orientation and to providing services in the *forms* students would most take advantage of, at the *places* they most needed them, and at the *times* they most frequently required them.

The team's main function involved not only providing direct-line services, but equally important, providing training and support to others within the residence complex whose function had been to provide direct services to students. It seemed important that the team's services be offered within the residence environment to avoid the too frequent situation where a student under crisis has been hesitant to seek assistance because of fear of possible involvement in university administration actions. In addition, by having the service within the residence environment, dormitory residents can come to see it as "their" program and that in turn may make it easier for a student facing stress to request help at an early stage and thus prevent the difficulty escalating to a major problem.

In order to gain entry into the dormitory and to obtain information pertinent to which forms, places, and times would be most appropriate for the services, the team met with the resident director and college master in the dormitory and then with the 18 resident advisors (junior and senior students hired as dorm staff). At these meetings the team emphasized their objectives of flexibility and accessibility and solicited ideas for structuring the counseling program for the dormitory. The fears and concerns dormitory staff had that the team would be "taking over" their functions and responsibilities were openly discussed, and a cooperative (instead of competitive) spirit was developed.

Within the next week, the team held separate meetings with students on each of the nine floors of the dormitory, again expressing their desire to be called upon and soliciting ideas for structuring the program. The actual decision as to whether or not the counseling team would come into the dormitory was left solely with the dormitory staff. Thus, by the time the team was "invited" to serve in the dormitory, they had already established a good deal of dorm staff support.

Finally, the program operated out of an office in the dormitory, but the team remained mobile and provided assistance throughout the residence complex, rather than isolating themselves in a fixed and

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static location waiting for those in need to come to them. Their regularly scheduled hours were unusual (9:00 P.M. to 12:00 midnight Monday through Thursday), and they were "on call" at all times for emergencies and other rapidly developing situations within the residence complex. The team provided not only direct-line services, but also training and support to the dormitory staff, who also provided direct services to students.

RESULTS

The evaluation of the project became the responsibility of the senior author, who had no supervisory functions for the team, was not involved in developing or implementing the philosophical and practical framework in which the team functioned, and had no responsibilities or duties within the dormitory complex which served as the project site. The evaluation consisted of four parts: subjective impressions, usage rates, diffusion effects, and questionnaire results.

Subjective Impressions. Regularly recorded impressions of the weekly staff meetings the team held with their supervisor were kept over a seven-month period. In particular, these impressions focused upon two areas: the people in the team and the services they rendered.

The counselors in the team were competent, well-adjusted people. They were genuinely motivated for and committed to providing effective, appropriate mental health services to the dormitory population. Their goals included maintaining a high level of sensitivity to the needs and psychosocial dynamics of the dormitory community. An outstanding characteristic of the team was their ability to identify specific aspects of the dormitory-academic environment which could produce stress. In this sense, they had a high prevention orientation as opposed to a crises-firefighting approach.

Initially the counselors were flooded

with appointments and requests for service. Around December there was a let-up in activities and calls upon them. But even during high demand periods, the team members made a point of not isolating themselves in their office by going out and becoming familiar with the dorm, getting to know the resident advisors, and taking part in business and social activities in the dorm. Their program provided for optimal visibility and availability, as well as ready follow-up and assessment of their interventions.

Usage Rates. We were interested in obtaining some information about the use of the services by students in the dormitory. The team's records and a questionnaire survey of the dormitory residents indicated that some 15 to 16 percent of the dormitory population were seen by members of the team during the academic year. This is over three times the percentage of students usually seen by the psychiatric section of the Student Health Service. In fact, the psychiatric usage rates for the dormitory with the team were the lowest of any of the rates for large high-rise dormitories on campus. Approximately 1.4 percent of the team dorm's population used the psychiatric service, whereas the average psychiatric usage rates for high-rise dorms on campus that year was 3.6 percent and for small dorms 3.2 percent.

The team dealt with problems ranging from a rather general discussion of student life (usually handled in one session) to those dealing with severe depression (usually requiring eight sessions per student). The most frequent presenting problem was that of academic concerns, followed by girl-boy problems. Drug-related problems, interpersonal difficulties with others in the living unit, and pre-marital couples' problems were the next most frequently presented, with pregnancies and depression being the least frequent presenting problems, although these were the ones which also required more individual contact hours than

the other, more frequent presenting problems.

Diffusion Effects. It is impossible to determine what effects the team may have had on a campuswide basis. However, the work of the team was the topic of discussion for various meetings in the Dean of Student's Office and thus probably focused additional attention to mental health needs on campus. They were approached by faculty in a living-learning dormitory unit who wondered about the feasibility of the team's services for their students. They became known to the director of the local mental health center in town, and they were approached by the town's drug treatment center regarding expanding drug information and counseling services on campus and in town. Certainly the team became noticed on a scale wider than the dormitory.

The team's goals within the dorm included supporting the dormitory staff responsible for helping students. In order to determine the extent to which the team reached this goal, the resident director, college master, and resident advisors in the dormitory were interviewed at the end of the academic year with a structured interview schedule of seven open-ended questions. The results of these interviews clearly indicated that the dormitory staff considered the team most useful. Four areas of service were frequently mentioned by the dormitory staff: (a) consultation—the dorm staff would discuss specific problem situations with a team member and get advice, guidance, and suggestions for handling the problem; (b) referral service—dorm staff found it easy and useful to refer students needing more counseling than they felt capable of providing; (c) direct service—students on the floor used the team's services, thus directly reducing the number of student problems with which dorm staff had to deal; and (d) personal counseling—dorm staff themselves felt the need for help with some personal

problems and found the team's services effective.

In addition, the dorm staff reported that the team's presence in the dormitory served to increase the staff's confidence in their ability to counsel and reduced their reluctance to get involved in problems in the dorm. The dorm staff felt a sense of readily available back-up, and this permitted them leeway to approach problems early without having to worry whether or not a problem was one they could handle.

The dorm staff was hard-pressed to find any disadvantages to having the team in the dormitory. When asked specifically about any conflicts between their role and the team's role, they made it apparent there were none. Rather, these two groups had developed a collaborative, cooperative, complementary relationship with one another, one in which there was an ease and a willingness to provide counseling services to the dormitory residents.

Questionnaire Results. It seemed important to obtain some estimate of the team's visibility in the dorm and some evaluation of the team's services from those students who had used or knew of others who had used the service. Therefore, a questionnaire was given to a random sample of 315 dormitory residents. All but seven were completed and returned. On the basis of that data, the team's visibility in the dormitory as assessed by numbers of students who "had contact with it" or "heard or knew of it" was greater than that of eight other counseling services (Guidance and Testing, Placement Service, Psychiatric Service, campus ministers, draft counseling, etc.) on campus and only less visible than the dorm staff and the Dean of Student Affairs' office. Ninety-three percent of the dormitory residents were aware of the team's existence, and 24 percent had used or knew of someone who had used the team's services. These students gave the team very good ratings. On a 5-point

scale (very poor, poor, average, good, very good), the mode for students using or knowing of someone who used the service was "good," and the mode for students using the service themselves was "very good."

CONCLUSION

On the basis of our experience with this pilot project and with the results of its evaluation, it seems evident that a small team of graduate student counselors operating in a dormitory setting and adhering more to principles of community mental health than to traditional one-to-one treatment can be successful in serving a decent proportion of the dormitory population. The project is an addition to the growing literature indicating the importance and effectiveness of nonmedical, nonpsychiatrically oriented programs for dealing with emotional and personal problems. Certainly numerous campuses with counseling services have long been aware of that fact. But it is amazing that so many institutions and college administrators are reluctant to conceptualize students' emotional and personal problems in anything other than a traditional medical model.

The study suggests the feasibility of a multidisciplinary, multiperson approach toward meeting emotional needs of students. This dormitory counseling service involved cooperative working relationships among professional consultants; graduate students in clinical psychology, counseling and guidance, medicine, and nursing; undergraduate students as dormitory staff; and adult dormitory staff. Certainly skillful attendance to the various interpersonal dynamics involved was necessary to integrate a group of such diverse backgrounds and skills into cooperative counseling functions. Our experiences indicate both the feasibility and usefulness of that approach.

Finally, the project suggests the importance of placing helping units where populations congregate (dorms, student unions) and making them available at the times they might most frequently be required. Moving counseling services out of academic and professional environments into the population centers and having personnel available evenings and weekends does create some problems for professional staff. But it may be that the increased availability and visibility would result in more effective service. It provides students easier access to a service which they begin to feel belongs to them. It can provide additional opportunities for staff to become more familiar with the stresses and atmosphere in student populations as well as increase the ability to assess the effectiveness of their interventions. ■

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Second Chance:
A Roleplayed Weekend

WILLIAM C. WESTER, II

For the past two academic years, the orientation committee and administration of Edgecliff College (a small coed liberal arts college in Cincinnati, Ohio) had organized a special voluntary weekend for freshmen, consisting of small group sessions and basic encounter techniques. These weekends were spent at Fort Scott, a summer camp located about 15 miles from Cincinnati. With its excellent facilities and wooded area, the camp is an ideal location for a variety of group experiences.

However, this year we all wanted to open the weekend to all students instead of just the freshman class. Therefore, we settled on a plan of action based on a television movie several of us had seen. The movie, *Second Chance*, concerns a man who buys a ghost town and takes his son with him to escape established society and its attending ills. As needs become evident, he seeks other people to join his community; thus, he gives each of them a second chance to establish his own society.

Our committee became more enthusiastic as our plans reached the level of reality. When we received confirmation from the film's producer that we could have a copy of the film for our use, we were pretty well set for our roleplaying weekend.

A memo to students and faculty went out as follows:

WILLIAM C. WESTER, II is Vice President for Academic Affairs and Dean, Edgecliff College, Cincinnati, Ohio.

To All Students and Faculty:

We invite you to become adventurous, to explore the unknown and to participate in a program which has never been offered on Edgecliff's campus, or, to our knowledge, on any campus across the nation. Hopefully, this weekend will offer what you have never experienced, but the ground rule for success depends on you and your participation. It will be a challenge that brings with it excitement beyond belief. But, in the end, the goal is to leave with a feeling of achievement. Won't you join us on our journey to Fort Scott?

Fifty persons, including 4 administrators, 8 faculty members, and 38 students, arrived at the camp on Friday evening, September 8.

At the 8:30 general session the group was welcomed, announcements were made, and a brief introduction to the idea of roleplaying was presented. To alleviate possible fears and anxieties, the group was informed that the whole weekend would be set up on a roleplaying basis. We then passed out name cards, holders, and felt-tip markers. We asked all participants to write their names on the cards. Beneath the name, each was asked to write a profession or avocation which would be applicable to that person 10 years in the future.

When the cards were filled out, we announced that that evening there would be a cocktail party and that each should come playing the role on the card.

The committee's thinking in developing such a plan was to give the partici-

pants a brief experience with the idea of roleplaying and also to provide them with a chance to relax and get to know one another.

The actual cocktail party was a simulated one with beer and soft drinks served in old-fashioned glasses. Cherries, lemons, orange slices, dips, appetizers, and cheeses made the setting a typical one. All mingled freely, and individuals came and went as they pleased.

All kinds of roles were chosen, ranging from the professional types such as Montessori teacher, biochemist, college president, and interior decorator, to a social activist and a liberal. One woman chose to represent herself as hostess of the party.

We began the 9:30 Saturday morning session by passing out cards and asking the participants to comment on the cocktail party. Then the facilitator introduced the new role in the following manner: "A group of us, administrators, faculty, and students, have joined together and purchased this camp. We have done this because we are fed up with society as it is now and the so-called establishment. We have come together here to establish our own society. The entire day will be totally unstructured, and we can decide as a group what we are now going to do in our new society." The facilitator then announced that everyone was to be present at the next session at 7:15 P.M.

There was a short period of silence, punctuated by a few laughs and giggles. Almost simultaneously, several persons got up in the center of the group and started talking about structuring the group and forming some type of leadership. As these people started to talk, one by one others started to join them. There was general milling for a while. Finally, one girl stood on a table and suggested that the group needed a "coordinator," a position she offered to fill. However, someone pointed out to her that the ideal was not to go back to a structured, leadership-type society and that the fact that she was standing on the table above the others was significant. After she got down, the whole idea of coordination or having someone as a leader dropped.

It was then suggested that we all return to a single unit in order to come to some agreements. The group began by working to establish goals and objectives; food and recreation were perceived immediately as needs. Various dimensions such as shared responsibility and freeloading were discussed. At this time, there was a real push for structure by one person, who presented a three-point platform: (a) he intended to pass around a card and have everyone indicate specific needs and goals (this would go to a committee who would gather the information and report on the findings); (b) he felt a committee should be set up where jobs could be filled as needed; and (c) he stressed a reliance on individual skills. His ideas did not carry weight with the rest of the group.

So the morning discussion was concerned with individual rather than group needs. At one point, the food service manager announced that he had always wanted to be a farmer and that he was withdrawing from kitchen preparation.

As lunch time drew near, several participants voluntarily left to fix lunch, while others broke off to play ball or hike, and still others remained to talk about what had taken place.

The roleplaying situation carried over into the lunch period. The kitchen volunteers had prepared lunch; those who went fishing brought back flowers for the tables; others had swept the floor and cleaned up the lodge so it would be ready for the 1:30 meeting which the group had agreed on.

After lunch the group was quiet and seemed to have difficulty getting started again. As in the morning, immediate needs were mentioned first. The director of campus ministry, in order to structure the discussions, placed a sheet of paper on the wall and began to elicit general

statements from the participants on what they thought was of importance. Basically, this short discussion involved two areas—the theoretical and the practical. The theoretical area covered what group and individual goals they felt were important. The practical area included ideas such as membership, sharing, utilization of personal resources, consensus vote, and other forms of agreement. Once again, the group began discussing values.

At this point, we decided to break up into small groups of eight and then return to the larger group. Each small group appointed a recorder to report back.

A typical report said that the group felt that the areas of growth which were particularly important to our community were intellectual, physical, spiritual, and emotional. They felt that each of these should have equal status, that is, allowing for individual differences and priorities. Specific individual needs included food, housing, clothing, and sanitation. General goals included the following:

- Freedom to express individuality (respect for others)

- Commitment to community service and support

- Privacy and meditation (get away to nature)

- Strive for chairman (or anyone who accepts responsibility)

- Sign up for responsibilities or duties (anyone who faiis to do so will end up with leftover jobs)

- Utilize talents—make things to share with our community and outside world (source of income also)

- Simplicity—slow down the pace of life

- Express individual goal for liturgy (possibly a written commitment)

- Emotional needs to be satisfied in terms of one's own individuality (no escapism—that would not be a community)

Following group discussions of the reports, the group decided to break for recreational activities and to resume at 7:15 P.M. Several volunteered to cook dinner, and others offered to assist in planning a liturgy for the following day. The rest of the group went out to engage in a variety of sports.

The roleplaying continued through the dinner hour, and everyone was ready to get together at the evening session. The facilitator told the group about the formation of the weekend. At this time, we showed the movie *Second Chance*. It was interesting to observe reactions to the movie. There was no doubt that people identified completely with the characters in the movie. Following the film, the entire group discussed the relationship between our day's experience and the experiences which took place in the movie.

We then asked each person to evaluate the weekend. There is no doubt from the comments that the majority of participants felt it worthwhile. The following are two comments:
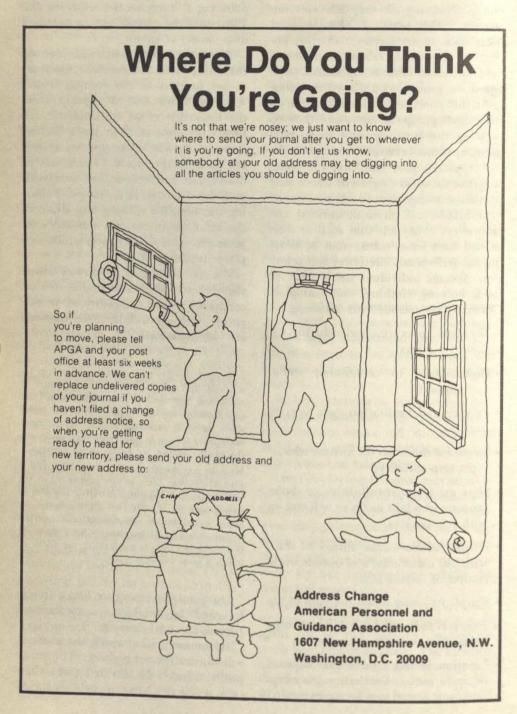
I thought the day was a novel, interesting, rewarding, and thought-provoking experience. It was a real experience in group interaction. The experimental day was great. After the initial shock wore off, we started to talk. In the afternoon, after talking in circles and then going into the smaller groups, we finally broke through.

How do you describe an experience like this? I gyrated between being totally caught up in the whole idea and absolutely detesting the idea of living with it. I think we all learned a lot about ourselves, our companions, and our priorities. Would I do it again? I don't know. At times the tension was unbearable, yet all in all it was a great learning experience.

On Sunday morning we had a liturgy followed by breakfast, a recreational period, and final clean-up.

In summary, all of us felt the weekend was worthwhile and exciting. The movie pulled together the idealized goal we had been trying to achieve, namely, establish-

ing a new society. Many students assumed major responsible roles during the weekend, and almost everyone developed a basic concern for others. How much will a person change as a result of such an experience? Will the participants be more aware of and sensitive to the needs of others when they return to the academic circle? Is such a weekend really worthwhile? Only time will tell. ∎

APGA Treasurer's Report

1 July 1971—30 June 1972

On 30 June 1972 the American Personnel and Guidance Association's net worth was $28,392, while one year earlier it had been $62,341. The decrease of $33,949 was due to a fire loss, reorganization costs, membership dues income dropping, a price freeze on nonmembers' JOURNAL subscriptions, a change in the position of executive director, fringe benefits increases, and other less tangible factors. Actual audited figures for APGA's fiscal year 1972 are shown in Table 1 (p. 744).

It is noteworthy that less than half the total income came from members' dues. This emphasizes the benefits to members made available by the combined resources of the national association.

APGA's prime fiscal policy is that "maximum programs and services at minimum cost shall be provided to members, the profession, and to society."

Services to members included the JOURNAL, *Guidepost,* services to branches and divisions, mailings, and a professional reference service. The expenses of direct member services were $277,973—precisely $10 per member.

Services to the profession, costing $36,501, included government relations, ethical practices, and public relations.

Services to society included $28,711 for human rights and nonwhite concern programs.

Association operation, including officers, directors, Senate, elections, and legal counsel, cost $55,417. Administration expenses for the executive director's and associate director's and business manager's offices, mailing and duplicating, social security and retirement costs totaled $158,808.

Services to members, to the profession, and to society plus Association operation costs listed above totaled $557,410, which is $13,676 more than the income from dues. This fact clearly tells all members what is done with their dues dollars!

Other APGA expenses for 1971-72, not covered by dues income, were: general accounting, $62,370; general office personnel, $54,864; building and equipment, $63,946; addressing services, $25,798; and data processing, $129,944. These expenses, totaling $336,922, are offset by ancillary enterprises' excess of income over expense. APGA-operated enterprises that had greater income than expenses in fiscal year 1972 were films, the addressing service, and our convention. Convention income was $243,692, against $232,102 in expenses. These expenses included a $40,000 reimbursement to APGA for salaries of headquarters staff in indirect support of convention activities. The 1972 Chicago Convention was more "profitable" than the one in 1971 at Atlantic City. Convention account surpluses, by Board direction, must accumulate to $75,000 before being treated as Association income in order to protect the Association from such convention losses as occurred in Detroit due to rioting. The 30 June 1972 convention fund appropriated net worth was $63,083.

In summary, the year 1971-72 was a year of reorganization and tribulation. We lost one executive director and searched for another. Several divisions deliberated continuance in APGA, and this affected membership accession and renewal, although we increased from 25,224 Association members to 27,729

during the year to regain our 1970 membership level. The Board of Directors at a midyear meeting voted approval of a planned deficit of $43,000, but careful administration and management held our excess of expenses over income, including an $8,499 fire loss over the amount of our insurance, down to $26,934. Association net worth on 30 June 1972 was $28,392, including restricted and appropriated funds plus $340,535 in fixed and other assets. ■ *Arthur M. Wellington, APGA Treasurer, Pennsylvania State University*

TABLE 1

American Personnel and Guidance Association, Inc.:
Income and Expenses for Fiscal Year 1972

Item	Income	Expenses
Membership dues	$543,734	—
Membership processing and promotion	—	$75,655
Addressing service	44,997	25,797
Grants (NCICE)	7,320	—
Convention (Chicago)	243,692	232,102
Publications (P&G Journal and Guidepost for each member included in this)	161,366	285,512
Mailing and duplicating		
Films	—	15,160
Data processing	117,323	117,885
Service charges	44,293	129,943
Professional reference and information service	57,192	—
Divisional journal production	—	18,471
Professional services to divisions	—	25,501
Field seminars	—	17,763
Professional services to branches	4,413	—
Federal relations	—	29,077
Office of non-white concerns	—	7,357
Association governance (officers, directors, Senate, committees, commissions)	—	25,991
Legal aid	—	43,607
Nominations, elections, Senate reports, Board mailings	—	9,470
Executive director's office	—	10,814
Associate executive director's office	—	41,817
Association administration and convention	—	25,165
Accounting, auditing	—	31,633
Fringe benefits, all staff	—	62,370
General office personnel	—	45,029
Buildings and equipment	—	54,863
Interest	7,800	63,946
Miscellaneous	3,516	—
Fire (cost over insurance)	4,327	—
Headquarters salary reimbursement (from convention income included above)	—	8,499
Data processing center charges to Association and to convention (included above in individual budget categories)	—	(40,000)
	—	(88,026)
Totals	1,239,978	1,275,411

Closing Another Volume

In the P&G family this was a year to reflect on the changes that have been made since 1969 in the contents and format of the JOURNAL. On the whole, the feedback we receive from readers is favorable; most members and subscribers seem to like the emphasis on "idea pieces," descriptions of new techniques and programs—in general, what might be called professional rather than scientific concerns.

These changes have not pleased everyone; this year we have heard from critics of two persuasions—those who think that we are not practical enough and those who think that we have neglected research and heavy theory. However, we have the impression that most of our readers are satisfied with the present blend, so for the most part we plan to continue pretty much as is. There are, after all, other publications to meet other needs—the 10 journals published by the nine APGA divisions, state association journals, various newsletters, and, of course, a number of research and theory journals. Each has carved out its own niche, and we think that we have found ours.

RESEARCH

With all that, there remains a nagging feeling that we are not doing enough to bring to our practitioner-readers the necessary recognition and interpretation of relevant research. Let me add quickly

that we have not the slightest thought, not even for a moment, of becoming a research journal or even of giving any space to technical reports that are of meaning only to researchers. No, our commitment is clearly to practitioners; any articles or columns on research that we would consider would have to be meaningful and significant to practitioners.

Unfortunately, very little research of that kind is done; at least, very few such articles reach us. And even those few studies that might be of interest to practicing counselors are usually characterized by, on the one hand, an obsession with methodological details, and on the other, too little interpretation of the results and their meaning for counselors. The false gods of "pure" research and bloodless writing continue to plague our field, with resulting sterility both in the research itself and the articles that seek to report the research. Maybe one of the reasons we have such a hard time getting good review-of-research articles that have something to say to practitioners is that so few research studies are capable of contributing anything.

Graduate schools, and particularly dissertation committees in education and applied psychology areas, have much to answer for; too often they have imposed upon people with *professional* interests in *human service* areas a set of traditions that came out of the physical sciences and

that, in large measure, are inappropriate for a field such as ours. At least, that is my own belief—but I have the impression that a few other people share it.

One approach we have considered is a regular column that would comment in an interesting manner on current research developments that are of value to our readers. We have explored the possibility with a few people, but so far with no luck. Admittedly this is a difficult kind of writing to do, and it requires a rare person—one who really knows research, who really knows practice, who can effectively and critically bridge the gap, and who can write clear English. We'll continue the search for such persons.

REDUCED FLOW OF MANUSCRIPTS

For unknown reasons, this year saw a drop in the number of unsolicited manuscripts received. In part, this is probably because many authors have recognized that we do not publish technical research reports; we now receive far fewer of those than used to be the case. But the drop is even greater than Table 1 indicates, because approximately 100 of the manuscripts received this past year were poems; so the number of article manuscripts really fell.

Perhaps authors and potential authors have been frightened off by the standards of writing that we have been trying to maintain. Almost never is a manuscript accepted in its initial form. Almost always manuscripts go back at least once for suggested revisions and even complete rewriting. Experienced authors recognize that this is usual and tend to do the revision and return the manuscript for further review. But in recent years we have tended to attract new authors, often younger people in the field. Perhaps they become unduly discouraged when they receive critical feedback that suggests revision. Perhaps if they realize that this

is quite typical, they will be more likely to try again.

The reduced manuscript flow should serve as an incentive to those potential authors who are a bit timid about writing for publication. We welcome "unknowns"; if anything, we favor the new voices, the new ideas, the new practices. In any case, every manuscript that the editor finds to be at all within the P&G publication scope is read by two members of the Editorial Board on a double-blind basis: The reviewers don't know who the author is, and the author doesn't know which Board members wrote the evaluations that are enclosed with my letter to the author. And I never use form letters, whether for acceptance, rejection, or suggested revision and resubmission. I dictate an individual letter to every author and try, as far as possible, to give specific reasons for the decision and to offer some kind of helpful feedback. That may not diminish the pain of rejection, but we are really trying to help develop new authors, not set records for rejection rates.

POETRY

Our first poem was published in the March 1970 issue (the poet, by the way, was Peg Carroll, who is now the editor of the *School Counselor*). Since that "experimental" beginning, the flow of poems has gradually increased to the point that we are now receiving about 100 poems each year, of which we publish some 25 to 30. We seek poems that deal pretty explicitly with counseling situations and that at the same time are strong poetically; for the latter judgment I rely heavily on the good taste and splendid advice of Willa Garnick, our poetry consultant.

I realize that poetry is not everybody's cup of tea, or bag, or whatever. But many people find poems to be a source of insights, of broadening awareness, of increasing sensitivity to feelings and

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Annual Report on the PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL

	1967 -68	1968 -69	1969 -70	1970 -71	1971 -72	1972 -73
Manuscripts received	408	410	477	547	581	497
Manuscripts accepted	121	85	51	73	127	122
Manuscripts in review	80	46	100	49	25	24
Backlog of unpublished manuscripts	29	37	10	1	4	4
Number of pages in volume	1,044	1,048	888	884	884	772
Articles in volume year	128	124	80	86	117	99
Book reviews in volume year	76	62	56	91	74	180
Ad pages						
Paid	240	230	160.50	123.80	101.50	90.00
Exchange	0	0	6.00	5.50	1.75	2.00
Internal [a]			30.25	34.00	40.50	14.75
Number of nonmember subscribers	6,100	7,239	7,273	7,019	5,759	6,481
Number of members	27,000	29,671	28,505	27,235	27,769	31,607
Journal print order (average)	35,000	38,000	40,000	38,000	37,600	37,900

[a] Internal ads not calculated for past years.

values and the deeper reaches of the human psyche. All those, I think, are legitimate goals of a professional journal in a human services field.

BOOK REVIEWS

We have pretty much licked the problem of delay in bringing our readers reviews of current books that might be of interest to them. Not only are we able to publish more reviews than formerly, but we also have reduced the time lag practically to the minimum possible. Whereas it used to be typical for a completed book review to wait for up to a year to be assigned to an issue, it is now almost universally true that each book review is included in the very next issue that is assembled, which means that it is in your hands some four to five months after we receive it.

We have been able to accomplish this change mainly by reducing drastically the length of most reviews; the *maximum* length we now assign reviewers is half of what used to be the *typical* length of our reviews. This seems to suit our readers; at least we have not received a single complaint about the shorter reviews.

SPECIAL ISSUES

This year we introduced the Special Feature to P&G. Less than an entire issue (and thereby different from a Special Issue), the Special Feature permits us to bring readers an integrated presentation of several articles on a single theme that seems to us to be timely and important and that has not received enough attention from unsolicited manuscripts. This year's Special Features were on Conventions (December) and Asian-Americans (February). In addition, we had two Special Issues—one on Women (October) and the other on Psychological Education (May).

The Special Feature makes it possible to cover thematic topics that either are not of widespread enough interest to warrant an entire issue or that do not require an entire issue. The Special Feature also has the advantage of enabling us to bring readers regular articles, book reviews, and the Etcetera and Feedback sections in the same issue.

The Editorial Board continues to welcome suggestions and proposals from readers for Special Features and Special

Issues. Those interested in details about the process of guest editing a Special Feature or Special Issue will find a rather graphic description in my introduction to the May 1973 issue. I will also be glad to mail a copy of our statement of policy and procedure to anyone who is interested.

NEW AND OLD FACES

The finished product of anything as complex as a journal cannot possibly reflect the many contributions that have gone into it. In our case there are the essentially invisible faces of 16 members of the Editorial Board; they read all manuscripts that are considered for publication after I screen out those that are clearly inappropriate for P&G. This year six members of the Board complete their terms of office: Martin Acker, Betty Bosdell, Mary Howard, Marceline Jaques, Marshall Sanborn, and Charles Warnath. I thank them personally for their many hours of hard work and good critical reviewing. Many authors are in their debt for suggestions that helped to improve manuscripts and that, in some instances, encouraged authors to do further writing.

Our staff at APGA is almost completely invisible to readers, although authors are very much aware of the help they render in the facilitation of a smooth flow of manuscripts and in the careful and dedicated editing and checking that makes the difference between mere words on a page and a polished presentation. This year Judy Wall joined our staff as the Assistant Editor, who handles for P&G all the copy editing and all the details of translating a manuscript into a clear and attractive printed page. Also new this year as Judy's supervisor and Managing Editor for all the APGA journals is Judith Mattson. They —and other APGA staff members—give far more than just a day's work. Their tender loving care makes the difference between just a journal and the quality product that comes out on schedule month after month.

So we close another volume, my fourth as editor. It continues to be for me one of the most challenging and one of the most satisfying of all the activities I have ever engaged in. ■ *Leo Goldman, Editor*

Etcetera

Daniel Sinick
George Washington University

Publishers interested in having their materials reviewed here are requested to send two copies to Dr. Daniel Sinick, George Washington University, Washington, D.C. 20006. Items reviewed in this column are not available from APGA.

Self-Disclosure: An Experimental Analysis of the Transparent Self by Sidney M. Jourard. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 605 Third Ave., New York 10016. 1971. 248 pp. $10.75.

An apostle of openness and authenticity, Jourard assembled previously published journal articles resulting from research by him and his associates, added chapters on interrelations and implications of the various studies, and included 22 appendixes of questionnaires and related materials that "may be used or modified by researchers without written permission." Such openness is indeed welcome in contrast to the current crass compulsion toward copyrights. Though admittedly "obsessed with self-disclosure" and advocate of interviewers' disclosing "themselves to their clients as fully as they expect the latter to reveal themselves," he concedes the value of being "utterly open when the circumstances call for it, and utterly mysterious and unknown, when that is called for."

Death and the College Student edited by Edwin S. Shneidman. Behavioral Publications, 2852 Broadway, New York 10025. 1972. 207 pp. $9.95 hardbound, $4.95 paperback.

"A Collection of Brief Essays on Death and Suicide by Harvard Youth," these papers were prepared for a course on death and suicide given by Shneidman, a top thanatologist and suicidologist (deadly terms indeed). Of high literary quality, the 19 chapters carry such catchy captions as "Dead Ernest," "Death Is Alive and Well in the Ghetto," "Psychological Death and Resurrection," and "My Suicide Attempt and the Encouragement of Herman Hesse." Succinct introduc-

tions by Shneidman and Dana Farnsworth, then Director of Harvard University Health Services, highlight issues and dynamics underlying dying, together with trying crises that cause youngsters to try suicide. Due consideration is accorded difficulties in generalizing from this special group at a particular point in time.

Where Colleges Are and Who Attends: Effects of Accessibility on College Attendance by C. Arnold Anderson, Mary Jean Bowman, and Vincent Tinto. McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020. 1972. 303 pp. $8.95.

One of a series of reports prepared for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, this defines accessibility "in the layman's geographic sense, and the analysis uses comparisons across towns or communities," but the "involved quantitative investigation" can lose many laymen in its labyrinthine presentation, with 73 tables and 16 figures. Readers who thread their way will find no bull, however, the book being centrally factual, forthright, and even profound. The concluding chapter probes such deep areas as decision parameters and college proximity, distance patterns and college attendance, and educational options and the social interest.

Youth in Modern Society edited by Shirley M. Clark and John P. Clark. Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 383 Madison Ave., New York 10017. 1972. 470 pp. $6.95.

Two sociologists have assembled readings based mainly upon research. "A 'groovy' book it is not—unless the reader is 'turned on' by the pursuit of principles concerning social behavior." Not as "straight" as this sounds, the collection includes such articles as "The Condemnation and Persecution of Hippies," "The Language of Adolescents," and "The Obedient Rebels." The 27 articles are presented in eight chapters, each chapter preceded by an editors' introduction. Some of the authors are familiar to P&G'ers, who will find much of the contents related to their concerns.

Behavior Modification in Child, School, and Family Mental Health by Daniel G. Brown. Research Press Company, 2612 North Mattis Ave., Champaign, Illinois 61820. 1972. 105 pp. $2.00 paperback. **Behavior Therapy** by Aubrey J. Yates. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 605 Third Ave., New York 10016. 1970. 445 pp. $16.00.

Both books use *behavior modification* and *behavior therapy* interchangeably. Brown's is "An Annotated Bibliography on Applications with Parents and Teachers and in Marriage and Family Counseling." Its 241 items include 32 films. Topical headings, an author index, and a subject index facilitate use of the ample annotations. The far larger book by Yates, an Australian, provides an historical and theoretical background before describing numerous applications of behavior therapy to all sorts of conditions, including "normal" disorders of "normal" people. The final section, "Critical Evaluation," fails to be truly evaluative or completely critical. In regard to assessment of behavior therapy's effectiveness, "the basic problem for consideration is . . . *how* behavior therapy should be assessed." Yates rather defensively delineates criticisms of behavior therapy, justifying its ethics, for example, by seeing *"needs of currently presenting patients"* in the light of *"needs of patients who will present for treatment in ten, 20, or 50 years' time . . . the treatment should be carried out in such a way that the next patient to be treated will benefit from the results."* Perhaps behavior modifiers need to begin by modifying their own ethics.

Drug Abuse: Current Concepts and Research compiled and edited by Wolfram Keup. Charles C Thomas, 301 East Lawrence Ave., Springfield, Illinois 62703. 1972. 467 pp. $19.50.

This typically high-priced Thomas tome is intended for "the specialist and the worker in the field." The 51 papers by 70 authors were presented at a two-day meeting of the Eastern Psychiatric Research Association in November 1970. They are divided into five sections: introductory papers, physical and medical aspects, psychological and sociological aspects, psychopharmacological aspects, and clinical and treatment aspects. Keup contributed one of the papers and a brief introduction.

Manpower Research and Development Projects. Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20010. 1972. 305 pp.

Completed and ongoing projects sponsored by the Manpower Administration are succinctly summarized in this useful resource. Included is a substantial list of doctoral dissertation research grants. Appendixes provide guidelines for submission of proposals and the amended Manpower and Development Training Act of 1962. Four indexes facilitate use of this 7¾" x 10¼" tome.

The Psychological Consequences of Being a Black American: A Sourcebook of Research by Black Psychologists edited by Roger Wilcox. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 605 Third Ave., New York 10016. 1971. 492 pp. $6.95 paperback.

Inaccurately titled, this is simply a book of readings (not all research) on such subjects as educational psychology, intelligence and achievement, cultural disadvantage and racial integration, higher education, and psychology as a profession. Most of the authors are black, for Wilcox wished to stimulate black students' "racial awareness and pride" in the contribution of black psychologists. He mistakenly listed all the authors in the appendix, however, as black psychologists. His own contribution includes a preface, introductions to the 48 readings, bibliographies for the 7 sections, and a concluding "reprise." Like most self-segregationist practices, this is one step backward in the hope of moving two steps forward.

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Book Reviews

Where Do I Go to Buy Happiness? Insights of a Christian Counselor by Elizabeth Skoglund. Downers Grove, Illinois: Inter-Varsity Press, 1972. 157 pp. $3.95.

In this brief, fast-reading book Skoglund introduces the reader to a world of teenagers who are seeking but not finding, who are alone and alienated, who are surrounded with wars, riots, and pollution, and who are rebelling against the same adult establishment from whom they beg for help. In response to their cries for involvement and nourishment they receive only materialism and rejection. For many the search leads to drugs, which only exacerbates their low self-esteem and compounds their frustration. A type of relationship designed to provide the caring and self-esteem prerequisite to human development is presented as the most essential commodity to offer our young people. The major theme running throughout this book is that this relationship leading to understanding and direction in our lives is best exemplified in the life and teachings

of Jesus Christ and is best implemented by those who adhere to these teachings as committed "Christians" in their daily lives.

One of the positive points driven home is that counseling and therapy are okay—that strong and healthy people seek it out. Another is that self-esteem is not "sinful" but should be sought after and is developed in the context of constructive human interaction. However, I worry that the book's weak points may outnumber the strong.

I worry that Skoglund has a negatively skewed perception of young people that is evidenced in a significant and serious misquote of Goethe which reads, "For if we treat people as they are, we make them worse. . . ." rather than, "If you treat an individual as he is, he will remain as he is. . . ." I worry that her sketchy treatment of drugs, groups, and counseling techniques leaves the reader without a systematic and cohesive conceptualization of how to get it together as a helping person. I worry that her own training is not comprehensive enough to make her aware that her statements describing behavioristic and analytic approaches are fragmentary to the point of being misleading and that she appears to have been influenced much more by client-centered than reality therapy, as indicated on the book's flyleaf. Finally, I worry that the book's greatest strength is also its greatest weakness: Its readability is in large part a function of its lack of real substance and depth.

Elizabeth Skoglund is a person I would like my own children to have as a counselor in stress situations and just to know as a significant and nourishing person. If, however, they were more deeply disturbed or if they were seeking substantial and comprehensive training as counselors themselves, I would refer them elsewhere.—*James C. Hurst, Colorado State University, Fort Collins.*

Succeeding in the World of Work by Grady Kimbrell and Ben S. Vineyard. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company, 1970. 484 pp. $7.96. **Activities for Succeeding in the World of Work,** including Teacher's Guide, by Grady Kimbrell and Ben S. Vineyard. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company, 1972. 288 pp. $2.64.

Succeeding in the World of Work should have been titled *The Conventional Wisdom about How to Succeed in Life.* Only part of the book refers to work, and that part presents a simplistic-moralistic view of the factors faced in entering the labor force, suggesting that the way for youngsters to succeed is to recognize what employers want and to conform to those expectations. Part II (8 chapters of 17) covers consumer education; two other chapters cover self-assessment and personal effectiveness.

The book covers the topics generally included in a "Life Adjustment" course. It is easy to read (although of uneven quality; Part III is well-written) and uses many descriptive and illustrative materials. We question if it's as relevant as it purports to be. Is the conventional wisdom for success appropriate today? Is conformity as desired today as it was 10 years ago? Does everyone succeed who follows these rules? Do the same rules apply to minority groups? We think that the wisdom contained in this book may be useful, but it is not sufficient and is often misleading.

Activities for Succeeding in the World of Work, published two years later, is more mature in tone and uses open-ended situations that enable students to test their values. It could well have been developed to meet some of the lacks of *Succeeding.*

The books overlap considerably in content and purpose, often using the same practice materials (e.g., both employ the same application form for a student to fill out). However, the books are neither complementary nor independently sufficient. *Activities* makes frequent references to *Succeeding,* leaving a void unless the reader refers to *Succeeding,* while *Activities* meets the problem created by the first book's approach that leaves the student a passive recipient of information—if he chooses to receive. The reader pays for two books to get the use of one. We wish that the authors had revised *Succeeding* to make it complementary to *Activities.*

The books are useful. *Succeeding* may be a welcome counselor or teacher resource. Both can be used by teachers of consumer education or counselors handling work experience or job orientation courses—if reviewed carefully in advance and used selectively.—*Alfred Stiller, Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Patchogue, New York, and Larry Swenson, Bay Shore High School, Bay Shore, New York.*

Strategies for Implementing Work Experience Programs by Grady Kimbrell and Ben S. Vineyard. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Company, 1972. 400 pp. $26.00.

Strategies for Implementing Work Experience Programs is not a guidance or counseling text, but it does deal with a topic that is closely related to guidance—work experience education. The text is a hardcover, loose-leaf binder, describing the whys and hows of developing, implementing, and evaluating work experience programs. The eleven chapters cover a continuum, going from "What, Where, and Why Work Experience Education" to "Elements of Outstanding Programs."

The outstanding characteristic of this book is its thoroughness. The authors not only deal with the philosophy of work experience but describe how to implement and evaluate a program.

There is one section entitled "Management and Paper Flow," which includes a number of examples of various types of forms such as student interest forms, community survey forms, promotional materials, certificates, posters, training station data forms, operator forms, and others. In short, the text is a cookbook as to what is involved in work experience programs.

The book has a number of shortcomings, however, although none of them is serious enough to really detract from the book. There is the problem of terminology; for instance, the authors use the term "career" interchangeably with "occupation." It would have been helpful if the authors had included a glossary of terms most commonly used in work experience programs.

In a number of instances the authors refer to the counseling responsibilities of the work experience program director, the work experience coordinator, and the placement specialist, yet nowhere do they talk about the need for training or certification in counseling for these positions. In fact, there seems to be a lack of specifics about precisely what kind of training the personnel in this type of program should have. It appears that people with a number of different backgrounds might function effectively in work experience programs, such as teachers, school counselors, employment counselors, personnel officers, and placement specialists in a state employment office.

In summary, for someone who is either beginning a work experience education program or wishes to improve such a program already in existence, this publication would be most helpful.—*Joseph W. Constantine, Hartford Public Schools, Hartford, Connecticut.*

Guidance and Counseling in the Elementary School by Richard C. Nelson. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1972. 408 pp. $8.95.

This book has many strengths. The author establishes the need for guidance services in the elementary school by presenting statistical and nonstatistical evidence from the home, school, and society. His chapter on "Needs" provides good material for the superintendent who is called upon to explain and defend the guidance program to the board of education, or for the director of pupil personnel services or the elementary school principal who is invited to explain guidance services to the PTA or a service club.

In an especially strong section the author points out that in the process of determining children's needs for counseling and guidance, self-selection, observation, and informal procedures may each prove useful. He presents devices and procedures ranging from informal assessment procedures to rating scales and the semantic differential.

Nelson highlights a number of theoretical approaches and their implications for elementary counseling, including psychoanalytic counseling, transactional analysis, reality therapy, Adlerian theory, behavior modification, self-theory, Gestalt therapy, and existentialism, pointing out that each of these offers something of value to the elementary counselor. He urges each counselor to develop a personal style consistent with his philosophy and his own personality.

The chapters "Play Media" and "Group Procedures with Children" present specific techniques and illustrative materials.

The counselor's responsibility as consultant to parents and teachers is presented as a function complementary to counseling. Stressed also is the counselor's obligation to maintain open lines of communication between himself and the principal and between himself and the variety of persons offering services to children and parents inside and outside the school.

Negative as well as positive findings of research on elementary guidance are presented, with suggestions of steps for conducting additional research.

Some readers will miss detailed presentations on the use and interpretation of standardized tests, or specific plans for determining accountability for pupil services in the elementary school. The role of other members of the pupil services team, such as the school psychologist and the school social worker, and articulation with junior high school guidance services is also lacking. These, however, are adequately treated in other texts.

This will be a useful text for college courses on guidance and counseling in the elementary school, and it should be helpful also to directors of pupil personnel services in conducting inservice programs for elementary counselors, administrators, and teachers. Most importantly, it offers tools, procedures, and ideas which can be used by the counselor on the job.—*Harry W. Smallenburg, University of Southern California Graduate Programs in Europe.*

Social Adjustment and Personality Development in Children by Merrill Roff, S. B. Sells, and Mary M. Golden. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1972. 206 pp. $8.50.

This book is a report based on a five-year research project in which peer relationship scores of 40,000 third, fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in Texas and Minnesota were correlated with a variety of variables such as family background, intelligence, birth order, ethnic and racial identity, school grades, and delinquency. Sociometric data was obtained from students whose schools were classified into one of eight SES groups.

The researchers found that the influence of the home is overwhelming on the personality development of children. On all counts, children from affluent homes come out ahead. They are less prone to tension, illness, and interpersonal conflict, primarily because of the love and affection which they receive from their parents. Also related to parental concern is the child's cognitive, personality, and social development, which in turn is associated with how others react to him.

The chief determiner of peer acceptance or rejection is the child's stimulus value, reflected in his personality, health, and self-concept. Accepted children are extroverted, friendly, healthy, and bright; rejected ones are hostile, antagonistic, in poor health, and mentally dull. It is interesting to note that teacher acceptance-rejection is related closely to the children's peer relationships.

Peer rejection is most often the lot of the less fortunate, the less able, the less effective, and the socially disadvantaged, a finding which is rather startling, especially if one tries to relate it to a school in which most of the children fit this description. Such a finding is undoubtedly a result of the researchers' gross procedure for assigning SES labels to the schools the students attended. The procedure would make it appear that all students in a given school were socioeconomically homogeneous.

In general, the findings reported in this study are important to counselors. However, the researchers were either careless in research design or simply failed to report clearly their procedures. Although this investigation elicits counselor interest, the reader should accept the findings with some reservation.—*Clemmont E. Vontress, George Washington University, Washington, D.C.*

Professional Obsolescence edited by S. S. Dubin. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath & Company, 1971. 171 pp. $7.50.

One of the best lines in this collection of twelve papers presented at a symposium held in England in mid-1970 under the auspices of NATO is by William Dill of New York University, who holds that "to take two hours and read a book is not easily surpassed as a remedy for obsolescence." It characterizes one of the major refrains found in most of the papers, namely, that we have not yet been able to distinguish exactly what it is that makes for success in preventing or even mitigating obsolescence of skill and knowledge among professional personnel. Some of the authors describe ongoing programs, and some supply research-based models for programs, but they all make it clear that we still have a long way to go in being able to discern what would make a really responsive program work.

Dill's paper is entitled "Obsolescence as a Problem of Personal Initiative," and Dubin, who edited the volume, is represented by a paper on "Motivational Factors in Profes-

NEW IN COUNSELING AND EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL THERAPY MATERIALS FROM THE ASHLOCK LEARNING CENTER *by* Patrick Ashlock, *The Ashlock Learning Center, Chicago,* and Sister Marie Grant, *Co-Administrator of the Dominican Education Service, River Forest, Illinois. Foreword by* Beth Stephens. '72, 440 pp. (5 3/4 x 8 3/4), 5 il., 4 tables, With accompanying, extensive test-related teaching materials. Book price: $15.75; Kit price: $125.00; Both $135.00

Isn't It Time He Outgrew This? or A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR PARENTS OF RETARDED CHILDREN *by* Victor L. Baldwin *and* H. D. Bud Fredericks, *both of Oregon State System of Higher Education, Monmouth; and* Gerry Brodsky, *Mental Health Division, State of Oregon. Illustrations by* Mari VanDyke. '73, 272 pp., 135 il., $8.95

PRESCRIPTIONS FOR CHILDREN WITH LEARNING AND ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS *by* Ralph F. Blanco, *Temple Univ., Philadelphia.* '72, 320 pp., $9.25

INTERPERSONAL HELPING: Emerging Approaches for Social Work Practice *compiled and edited by* Joel Fischer, *Univ. of Hawaii, Honolulu. (47 Contributors)* '72, 704 pp., 19 il., 12 tables, cloth $16.95, paper $9.95

FAMILY ROOTS OF SCHOOL LEARNING AND BEHAVIOR DISORDERS *edited by* Robert Friedman, *Univ. of Southern California School of Medicine, Los Angeles. (12 Contributors)* '73, 360 pp., cloth $14.75, paper $9.50

INTRODUCTION TO CORRECTIONAL RE-HABILITATION *by* Richard E. Hardy, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Richmond, and* John G. Cull, *Virginia Commonwealth Univ., Fishersville. (22 Contributors)* '73, 288 pp., 1 table, $12.75

MENTAL DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION OF THE PEDIATRIC PATIENT *by* Lawrence C. Hartlage *and* David G. Lucas, *both of Indiana Univ. Medical Center, Indianapolis.* '73, 92 pp., 36 il., $6.50

MICROCOUNSELING: Innovations in Interviewing Training (2nd Ptg.) *by* Allen E. Ivey, *Univ. of Massachusetts, Amherst. A Contribution by* John R. Moreland. *Foreword by* Robert R. Carkhuff. *Introduction by* Dwight W. Allen. '72, 228 pp., 1 il., 1 table, $9.75

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION IN EDU-CATIONAL SETTINGS *edited by* Roger D. Klein, *Univ. of Pittsburgh;* Walter G. Hapkiewicz, *Michigan State Univ., East Lansing; and* Aubrey H. Roden, *State Univ. of New York at Buffalo. (69 Contributors)* '73, 568 pp., 77 il., 27 tables, $14.95

BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE AND MODERN PENOLOGY: A Book of Readings *edited by* William H. Lyle, Jr., *United States Public Service, Washington, D. C., and* Thetus W. Horner. *(32 Contributors)* '73, 376 pp., 2 tables, $11.95

FOCUS ON CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR: Readings and Research *edited by* W. Scott MacDonald *and* Gilfred Tanabe, *both of Univ. of Hawaii, Honolulu. Illustrations by* Gwen MacDonald. *(18 Contributors)* '73, 170 pp., 17 il., 9 tables, $8.95

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSULTATION WITH A POLICE DEPARTMENT: A Demonstration of Cooperative Training in Mental Health *by* Philip A. Mann, *Indiana Univ., Bloomington.* '73, 184 pp., 6 tables, $9.50

CRIMINAL REHABILITATION—WITHIN AND WITHOUT THE WALLS: With Contributions From Experts Within the Field *edited by* Edward M. Scott, *Univ. of Oregon Medical School, Portland, and* Kathryn L. Scott. *Foreword by* George A. VanHoomissen. *(13 Contributors)* '73, 235 pp., 1 table, $7.95

COUNSELOR EDUCATION AND SUPER-VISION: Readings in Theory, Practice, and Research *compiled and edited by* Milton Seligman *and* Norman F. Baldwin, *both of Univ. of Pittsburgh. (60 Contributors)* '72, 436 pp., 5 il., 34 tables, $14.75

BEHAVIOR THERAPY WITH DELINQUENTS *compiled and edited by* Jerome S. Stumphauzer, *Univ. of Southern California School of Medicine, Los Angeles. (33 Contributors)* '73, 376 pp., 42 il., 10 tables, $11.95

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sional Updating." Both typify another recurring theme in the volume, i.e., that there are a number of factors affecting an individual's desire to engage in mid-career education, ranging from lack of time to the syndromes involved in getting older and the lack of incentives and rewards for further learning. The volume makes a good case for much more research in these aspects of the problem.

As is true for most books which present conference papers, this one is uneven in its writing (two of the best, it seems to me, are the ones presented in French) and uneven in the substance of its papers, varying from the relatively flat and uninformative paper by Carl York, an American, whose subtitle "An Analysis of U. S. Government Activities" is misleading since it doesn't provide anything of the sort, to M. Ter Davtian's, which gives a very good overview of government activities, and M. Bosquet's, which describes the problems of updating the self-made man who moves up the ladder.

The problem for all of us engaged in guiding and counseling people of all ages is fortified by this volume. If only in terms of attitudinal development, we should keep emphasizing the critical importance of change in our working lives. Perhaps we ought also to prepare people for the fact that it won't be easy to find formats in government, industry, or academia for help in adjusting to those changes.—*Seymour L. Wolfbein, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.*

The Psychological Assessment of Children by James O. Palmer. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1970. 475 pp. $12.75.

In my judgment, this text is a handbook aimed at the neophyte clinical psychologist or the psychologist in training. It appears to be an exposition of "ego psychology" applied to assessment. It would be useful as a supplement, perhaps, for someone attempting to discover a means of communicating with an "ego psychologist" who is working at a central guidance bureau, a community mental health center, or some other setting where extreme cases are referred and who is intent on practicing "ego psychology" assessment.

In the section on making referrals to counselors or therapists, the author attempts to describe several theories and to recommend appropriate referral approaches. To me, he

seemed to be addressing people other than his clinician readers. Principles were presented in a brief, almost cursory, manner. Basic theory and practice in appraisal seemed to have been assumed in his writing.

The book also contains small errors such as word misspellings, including the name of a reference, and word misusages unexpected in a book from this publisher. My greatest concern, in retrospect, is the misleading title, which might result in some people's attempting to use the book, only to discover its quite limited foundation. Within the limitations, the book is well done, but its usefulness was determined by the initial narrow perspective. The book is too big and all in all probably isn't worth $12.75 to most readers of this journal.—*Arden J. White, University of Wyoming, Laramie.*

The Provo Experiment by LaMar T. Empey and Maynard L. Erickson. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1972. 321 pp. $12.50.

The purpose of this book is to greatly expand a 1961 journal article on the Provo Experiment in delinquency rehabilitation. The project is described in a rather detailed account of the theory, design, and process of the experiment.

The experiment compared the effect of the treatment approach on four groups of offenders. Experimental groups were compared with controls, using both institutional and community-based subjects. The overall aim of the approach was to provide young offenders with an alternative to their previous self-defeating behaviors.

The major strengths of the program as pointed out by the authors are its research base and its use of group procedures as the principal treatment approach. Certainly systematic evaluation of one's rehabilitation program is to be commended. Similarly, use of the group as a therapeutic vehicle has been shown to be effective with correctional populations. However, I doubt that many but the most specialized reader will be interested in the details and the somewhat repetitive material presented.

Many valuable insights into the difficulties facing the counselor/researcher in a correctional setting are presented. How does one develop feasible success criteria? How do

serious offenders react to the group process? What are some of the differences between an incarcerated treatment group and a community-based group? What are some of the problems in trying to carry out an experimental design in an ongoing correctional setting? How can one deal effectively with community attitudes?

The rehabilitation of the youthful offender is clearly a top priority among mental health personnel. Much money is being spent in often unfruitful attempts to provide meaningful alternatives to criminal behavior. The offender has proven to be one of the most recalcitrant of clients to traditional treatment methods. Any information which can shed light on effective treatment procedures is to be welcomed. This book should be helpful to the serious reader in the correctional field. Some background in sociological theory will help. For the school counselor or counselor in noncorrectional settings, the original journal article should provide the essence of the experiment.—*George W. Krieger, University of Maryland, College Park.*

Toward a Technology for Humanizing Education by David N. Aspy. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1972. 123 pp. $3.00.

Aspy has written a book for teachers and teaching supervisors, but I think its greatest impact might be on the professional activity of counselors. Here is a methodology which could serve as an intervention strategy for counselors to have an impact on what happens in the classroom.

Aspy focuses on the process of teaching—the interpersonal interaction that occurs during the school day. He presents training methods for assisting teachers to become more human in this process. Three assumptions underlie the humanizing of education: (a) learning is a process which occurs between individuals and can be enhanced or diminished through the degree of interpersonal facilitation present; (b) all human beings can benefit from a healthier interpersonal environment since they are engaged in a lifelong developmental process; and (c) interpersonal facilitation can be enhanced.

The book is comprised of approaches for

helping teachers to learn to be more understanding and caring, to improve their ability to facilitate the development of students. The instruments Aspy uses are Flanders' Interaction Analysis, Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, and Carkhuff's scales for assessing interpersonal functioning. Aspy has extended Carkhuff's interpersonal scales to include the specific classroom dimensions of student involvement and the promotion of students' success in achieving their own goals. Any of these instruments may be used either for research or training purposes, giving the teacher the ability to assess his or her own classroom and proceed to work for any improvement which is needed.

In the now familiar Carkhuff fashion, the reader is almost overwhelmed with research data, much of which might be questioned. Likewise, it is possible to take issue with many of the specific scales, procedures, and assertions. One is convinced by the argument, however, that improving the interpersonal processes of education is possible and does lead to measurable student benefits. Counselors at all levels of education could apply parts of Aspy's approach.—*Dalva E. Hedlund, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.*

For Those Who Care: Ways of Relating to Youth by Charles L. Thompson and William A. Poppen. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1972. 171 pp. $3.95.

This book is for practitioners, specifically teachers, counselors, and parents, and is concerned topically with adult-youth relationships, interpersonal learnings, communication, and the management of conflicts. It is a presentation of categories of actions for relating to youth such as counseling, "confronting, complaining, and encountering," contracting, behavior change techniques, and group activities.

The expressed goal of the authors, which derives from their awareness that ". . . researchers and writers have difficulty bridging the gap between theory and practice," is not ". . . to present theoretical discourse but to present ideas which have day-to-day applicability."

Such a goal is most understandable and laudable, but extremely difficult to achieve. What often happens with those who are weary of philosophical discourse (too often confused with theory) is that they wish to be practical. Being practical, however, gets translated into being concrete and elemental with a vengeance. The result is usually a superficial, popular treatise of "how-to-do-its." No reach, no power. What is presented is a simplistic world which belies the complexity and intricacy of the human situation.

Unfortunately, this work is not free from the usual afflictions of similar efforts. It is held together more by caring and intention than by a comprehensive, integrated presentation of strategies—and that is not enough. It will not result in an informed practice.

For practice to be powerful and effective, it cannot be divorced from theory or from systematic, conceptual thought. If I may be allowed special liberties with an established maxim—theory without considerations of practice is empty; practice without considerations of theory is blind.—*Chris D. Kehas, Manchester, New Hampshire, Public Schools.*

Counseling, Evaluation, and Student Development in Nursing Education by Lawrence Litwack, Robert Sakata, and May Wykle. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1972. 243 pp. $9.75.

"You can't judge a book by its cover," and "beauty is only skin deep." Both of those adages are applicable to this book. Externally, it is colorful and attractively bound, and the title suggests utility for nurse educators. Internally, it is likely to disappoint the informed reader. A useful table of contents contains over 175 headings, although the rationale for the sequence of presentation remains a mystery. In contrast, the index is so short and incomplete as to be virtually useless.

The three sections of the book, each dealing with one of the title's topics, suggest the work of different authors, handling their subjects at different levels and with varying degrees of success.

The "Counseling" section assumes no prior preparation and begins with basics, using a cookbook approach to present a series of how-to-do-it lessons. One worries about the hazards awaiting the counselor, to say nothing of the counselee, if the nurse educator/counselor has no more preparation than that given here. Those most in need of more instruction are most likely to assume their own competence after reading such a manual.

There is some excellent material in the "Evaluation" section, but the authors seem to have lost sight of their intended audience. Few nurse educators have sufficient background to understand the measurement chapter because of its brevity and associated superficiality. The illustrative items in the chapter on test construction could easily be improved by a moderately competent item writer, so that they would, in fact, illustrate the principles enunciated in the text.

The final section, "Student Development," is a potpourri and contains many errors of commission, such as crediting the ACT to SRA (p. 168), and of omission, such as the failure to mention the widely used pre-admission and achievement tests for schools of nursing provided by the Psychological Corporation. On the other hand, the test services of the National League for Nursing are given attention which is not only extensive, but all too often in error.

It is unfortunate that the authors missed the opportunity to provide assistance sorely needed by nurse educators in the subject matter of the book. Readers may find its most useful feature to be the lengthy bibliography in each section.—*Mildred E. Katzell, Professional Examination Service, New York City.*

Handbook of Psychotherapy and Behavior Change: An Empirical Analysis edited by A. E. Bergin and S. L. Garfield. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1971. 957 pp. $19.50.

When I undertook the task of reviewing the *Handbook,* I did so with some hesitation. Considering the complexity of the field, variations in practice, the limited objectives of much research, and the proliferation of new therapies, I feared that I might be saddled with the task of wading through a massive and disconnected array of research studies about psychotherapy. My fears were unfounded! The *Handbook* is an excellent learning experience, and every serious student of psychotherapy and behavior change should have ready access to it. Perhaps in the very limited space available, I can clarify a few of the reasons for my enthusiastic response to the *Handbook.*

Not only does the *Handbook* effectively meet the editors' intent of providing a "systematic review and appraisal" of the work in the field, but it meets equally well its com-

plementary thrust of determining "what implications such work might have for practice." Any comprehensive review of research in a given field can accomplish with relative ease the task of adequately cataloguing, accurately reporting, and citing implications of research findings. And structurally the *Handbook* is designed so as to meet that objective readily. Well-selected contributors acquaint the reader with an empirical analysis of data about the effectiveness of a wide range of extant procedures used to effect behavior change.

But the task that the *Handbook* has accomplished which vastly enhances its usefulness to both practitioner and empiricist is in its elaboration of relevant contextual matters which stimulated the research projects that are reported. Research questions and findings are provided within the context of the historical development of lines of inquiry, social influences, interrelatedness of data, and issues about why certain factors were isolated for study, as well as their implications.

If the practitioner reads only the chapter conclusions which cite specific implications for practice, he might feel slighted. But he

will have most certainly missed a golden learning experience! For the clues to practice and the sources for productive introspection about the field are embedded in the text. If the practitioner reads the text with an eye to the contingencies and social influences which stimulated particular research projects, the demands of a changing social scene which affect trends, the theoretical rationale for examining certain questions, the modifications that the data suggests, and the ensuing revisions to operational hypotheses about effective change mechanisms—if the practitioner reads the text from such perspectives, he will observe, firsthand, exciting developments in the field.

The editors are correct in their view that "the contributions capture the wave of progressive feeling and optimism" about the state of research in psychotherapy. That optimism, enthusiasm, and strong sense of commitment to the study of behavior change is reflected in chapter after chapter. And it is in the skill with which the authors have communicated their enthusiasm about potential developments, changing intervention modalities, and researchable ideas that the strength of the *Handbook* resides.—*William J. Mueller, Michigan State University, East Lansing.*

Explorations in Non-Traditional Study edited by Samuel B. Gould and K. Patricia Cross. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1972. 137 pp. $6.75.

Guidance specialists concerned with educational articulation and student transition in higher education will find this first report of the Commission on Non-Traditional Study of interest. The simplest definition of non-traditional study is "a group of changing educational patterns caused by the changing needs and opportunities of society." The case for these alternatives is based on the inadequacies of the present system to serve atypical clients such as housewives, veterans, minority group members, unusually creative students, businessmen, and other under-represented or inadequately served groups. While the development of flexibility and innovativeness to better serve these people is an important theme, guidance professionals concerned with higher education will be equally interested in how nontraditional options might apply to the long-standing (but often neglected) transitional impediments to learning confronting "typical" students.

The chapter on "Problems of Access" offers the most broadly applicable material to guidance practices. Counselors are justifiably criticized for not developing the two-way communication systems needed to make proper connections between the variety of learners and the variety of opportunities that potentially exist for them. The authors' emphasis on "the flow of information" and the duality essential for good articulation is useful and timely.

For the relatively uninitiated, the challenges offered to a number of higher education's sacred cows should be enlightening. These sacred cows include the value of uninterrupted progress toward a degree, on-campus residential requirements, and others. The treatments of the more standard topics of higher education transition (e.g., transfer of credits) are somewhat superficial, but the purpose is to make a case for nontraditional study rather than to render an exhaustive treatment of it. This focus does produce the most comprehensive survey of nontraditional options for higher learning that I have seen. Also, the brief exposition of new organizational concepts and mechanisms for making higher education more flexible and responsive, while preserving control and confidence in it (Regional Examining Universities, the National University), are stimulating ideas.

I found the generally superficial treatment of both traditional education and its existing and proposed alternatives a bit disconcerting. However, the editors explain that this short volume is simply the first, tentative, exploratory statement of the Commission. As such, it serves more to stimulate interest than to render conclusive statements. Consequently, the most exciting aspect of the book is the prospect of a later, more comprehensive and definitive statement about the nature and future of nontraditional study.—*Julius Menacker, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle.*

The Art of Helping by Robert R. Carkhuff. Amherst, Massachusetts: Human Resource Development Press, 1972. 178 pp. $4.75.

Few "delightful little books" are also packed with concrete, useful material. *The Art of Helping* is one of these rare finds.

Carkhuff has carefully distilled a tremendous amount of research and experiential knowledge about effective change and growth processes into a clear, learnable, and teachable set of skills for anyone who really wants to help others. An appealing format, simple language, and a very readable style combine to make the book appropriate to a wide variety of readers (professionals, students, clients, etc.). No jargon is used and no behavioral science knowledge base assumed.

Carkhuff presents a complete, but easily understandable, conceptual framework and developmental model for the helping process. Then he proceeds to take the reader, step by step, through the basic skills necessary to effectively implement this process: attending, responding, initiating, and communicating. Each skill is broken down to the simplest units of verbal and nonverbal behavior, so that the reader is left with a principle or a specific behavior to practice at the end of each page.

At first, I just read *The Art of Helping*. Then, I began to really use the book. As I reread it, I began to practice the skills. The more I practiced, the more I used the skills. The more I used the skills, the more I began teaching them to others (family, friends, clients, trainees, and colleagues).

I now find *The Art of Helping* influencing all of my interactions; and my clients, trainees, and colleagues report similar experiences as a result of reading and really using this powerful little book.

An added bonus is provided by the interaction examples that the author weaves into the skill development program. Not only do we get a realistic picture of how the specific skills merge together in an effective helping process, but as we meet a directionless student, a confused couple, and an angry young black man, we also gain some important insights into the feelings underlying the generation gap, heterosexual anxieties, and racial tensions.

Carkhuff's stated purposes are to present concrete, usable helping skills and to introduce a life skills series. In my opinion, these purposes are fully accomplished. I know my own effectiveness as a helper has increased as a result of reading and practicing *The Art of Helping*, and I am eagerly awaiting future titles in this life skills series.

The Art of Helping is the most useful book

I own. I strongly recommend it to everyone who sincerely wants to help.—*John R. Cannon, Pennsylvania State University, University Park.*

Nine Rotten Lousy Kids by Herbert Grossman. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1972. 407 pp. $6.50.

This book is a story about nine kids who attended an experimental school for delinquent boys rather than being assigned to state training schools or residential treatment centers. The school was established on the premise that these students would be best helped by a compassionate understanding of their problems and by a program based on love, trust, optimism, and friendship rather than a program involving punishment and removal from their community.

The book was compiled from a daily log kept by the staff members and unfortunately retains the choppy and unorganized style of such a log. It often resembles a series of newspaper accounts written by a reporter or a series of scrambled anecdotal reports from cumulative folders.

The book does convey the variety of problems that "nine rotten kids" can have and the situations and confrontations that these students can create. It also communicates the almost saintly patience and permissive understanding of the staff for their students. Unfortunately, there is no in-depth examination of how the boys' problems developed despite the fact that several received therapy from staff members, and the reporting style does not capture an internal frame of reference for the struggles of these students. There is oblique reference to behavioral science being applied, but there is no development of this subject. There is little mention of the educational methods used to motivate the students toward the academic portion of their program, and there is an absence of suggested approaches such as performance contracts, reward systems, or establishment of limits.

Grossman's book neither develops nor communicates a systematic approach to implement the therapeutic concepts of love, trust, friendship, and optimism. There is a desperate need for schools which can work with delinquent students and for approaches that will help boys make a successful adjust-

ment to society. We have a similar school in our system and are painfully aware of the need for more direction. The staff at the New York school may have developed a successful approach and made significant changes in the students' lives, but the book does a superficial and inadequate job of sharing this program. — *Robert E. Lindberg, Phoenix Union High School District, Arizona.*

The California Psychological Inventory Handbook by Edwin I. Megargee. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1972. 298 pp. $17.50.

This book was to have been one chapter in a volume on structured personality inventories. Megargee's account of how it became a whole book is delightful. Actually, this work might serve as a prototype for handbooks on psychological instruments. Since Megargee wrote the whole manuscript, it has an evenness and cohesiveness not found in handbooks written by various contributors.

Because Megargee is not the author of the California Personality Inventory (CPI), he writes from the point of view of an outsider who wants to know all about the instrument. From this vantage point he can explore areas that an author might find uncomfortable.

He obviously has a great deal of warm feeling and respect for the author, Harrison Gough, and writes extensively about Gough's philosophy in developing the CPI. Yet he also presents the point of view of (a) the user who is concerned about the nonindependence of the scales because he wants to use them to define constructs and (b) the user who is concerned about response set in an inventory where a disproportionate number of items are keyed "false."

Megargee's intent was to provide "all the basic information anyone using the CPI would require, whether he was a counseling psychologist, a clinician, or a researcher." He has met his goal admirably. The sections on interpreting individual profiles and on applications of the CPI come relatively late in the book because Megargee insists that they do not stand alone but depend on a good understanding of the development and structure of the inventory. Any user who follows Megargee's advice and reads the whole book, not just the chapters on application, can hardly fail to understand the CPI.

If the book has any limitation, it is the rather shocking number of errors in proof-reading. It is disconcerting to find a sentence in which one must read "more" where the text says "less" to make the paragraph coherent (p. 75, paragraph 3). One such lapse is understandable; many are lamentable in an otherwise well-produced and attractive volume. — *Lenore W. Harmon, University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee.*

Objective Personality Assessment: Changing Perspectives edited by James N. Butcher. New York: Academic Press, 1972. 212 pp. $6.95.

This slender volume is a "think" book about questionnaire-type personality inventories in general and the MMPI in particular. If you are interested in objective personality assessment as a field, where it's been (or wanted to go and not yet made it), and where it may go next, then I commend this to you as a significant book to read.

Hidden behind the cover are five papers by a star cast—Starke Hathaway, Jane Loevinger, Warren Norman, Grant Dahlstrom, and David Campbell—loosely organized around the questions of whether the MMPI needs revision and what the problems of a revision might be. For these papers, presented at the Fifth Annual Symposium on Recent Developments in the Use of the MMPI and honoring Starke Hathaway, Butcher has written an introductory chapter on contemporary problems and perspectives of personality assessment and has persuaded Paul Meehl to write a concluding chapter using the preceding contributions as a point of departure.

To me, the great virtue of the book is that the contributors look back with candor and forward with prejudice. They share their personal perceptions and experience—their wisdom, if you will. This type of evaluative summary statement is almost always missing in a research report and frequently absent in texts or other books. The opinions of the authors are far from homogeneous—this is no mere encomium for the MMPI or for personality assessment—and the book's diversity and richness of ideas for theory and method make it a natural for use in graduate seminars. It will also be important as enrichment for professionals with backgrounds in personality theory and assessment. It is not light, introductory reading for the uninitiated. — *Austin C. Frank, University of California—Berkeley.*

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Guidelines for Authors

The PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL invites manuscripts directed to the common interests of counselors and personnel workers in schools, colleges, community agencies, and government. Especially welcome is stimulating writing dealing with (a) discussions of current professional and scientific issues, (b) descriptions of new techniques or innovative practices and programs, (c) scholarly commentaries on APGA as an association and its role in society, (d) critical integrations of published research, and (e) research reports of unusual significance to practitioners. Dialogues, poems, and brief descriptions of new practices and programs will also be considered. When submitting an article for publication, use the following guidelines:

1. Send an *original* and two clear copies.

Articles. Manuscripts should not exceed 3,500 words (approximately 13 pages of typewritten copy, double-spaced, including references, tables, and figures), nor should they be less than 2,000 words.

In the Field. Manuscripts should be kept under 2,500 words. They should briefly report on or describe new practices, programs, and techniques.

Dialogues. Dialogues should take the form of verbatim interchange among two or more people, either oral or by correspondence. Photographs of participants are requested when a dialogue is accepted. Dialogues should be approximately the same length as articles.

Poems. Poems should have specific reference to or implications for the work of counselors and student personnel workers.

Feedback. Letters intended for the Feedback section should be under 300 words.

2. Manuscripts should be well organized and concise so that the development of ideas is logical. Avoid dull, stereotyped writing and aim to communicate ideas clearly and interestingly to a readership composed mainly of practitioners.

3. Unless an article is submitted for In the Field, include a capsule statement of 100 words or less with each copy of the manuscript. The statement should express the central idea of the article in nontechnical language and should be typed on a separate sheet.

4. Avoid footnotes wherever possible.

5. Shorten article titles so that they do not exceed 50 letters and spaces.

6. Authors' names and position, title, and place of employment of each should appear on a cover page only so that manuscripts may be reviewed anonymously.

7. Double-space *everything*, including references and quotations.

8. References should follow the style described in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*. The *Manual* may be purchased from APA, 1200 17th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036, at $1.50 per copy.

9. Never submit material that is under consideration by another periodical.

10. Submit manuscripts to: Editor, PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL, 1607 New Hampshire Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Sending them to the editor's university address will only delay handling.

Manuscripts will be acknowledged upon receipt. Following preliminary review by the editor, they will be sent to members of the Editorial Board. Manuscripts not accepted will be returned for revision or rejected. Generally, two to three months may elapse between acknowledgment of receipt of a manuscript and notification concerning its disposition.